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### ART. I.—EXTENSION OF THE SUGAR REGION OF THE UNITED STATES.

SOME REMARKS ON THE QUESTION: "HOW FAR NORTH THE CULTURE OF THE SUGAR-CANE  
CAN BE PROFITABLY EXTENDED IN THE UNITED STATES?"

I HAVE interrogated facts and science on the question, and they say, that the sugar region, proper, extends much further north than is generally supposed. A false theory, in regard to the climate the best for the cane, has limited its culture, in the United States, mostly to the 30th parallel of latitude, and a little beyond. But one fact is worth many theories. A thousand hogsheads of sugar was made last year, 1851, on a plantation the furthest north of any other sugar estate in America, and this sugar, I am creditably informed, brought a better price, and the molasses sold for two cents on the gallon above any in the market. The plantation is owned by Mr. Calhoun, and lies in latitude  $31\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ , nearly half a degree north of Alexandria, on Red River. While theory would limit the sugar region in the United States to  $30^{\circ}$ , actual experiment has found, in latitude  $31^{\circ} 30'$ , not only as good, but a better climate for the production than that further south. A similar erroneous notion, about the best climate for cotton, kept the culture of the cotton plant within and on the borders of the tropics for more than two hundred years. It would have been there still, if science had not interposed and proved the folly of the traditional opinions derived from Old Spain. From the same old non-progressive country we have got, until recently, all our ideas about sugar—its culture, manufacture,

and the climate and soil most suitable for its production. Because the cane and cotton plants grow in the tropics where there was no frost, Spanish logic arrived at the conclusion that those plants could not be profitably cultivated in any region subject to cold, frosty weather. True science, guided by experience, has already proved the reverse in regard to the cotton plant, and it will no doubt demonstrate the same thing of the cane. It will prove, that a little frosty weather is as essential to the perfect maturity of the one plant as the other, and that neither comes to perfection without it. Cold nights and hot days, near the period of maturity, give strength and elasticity to the staple of cotton, and have a favorable effect upon cane, preparing the liquid sugar in it to mature sooner and better, and to crystallize, when defecated, in firmer, harder, and dryer grains than it does in tropical climates.

The further north the cane plant can be made to grow and mature its juice, the better will be the sugar, and the higher its value, because its grain will be better, as proved by the sugar made on Mr. Calhoun's plantation, situated a degree and a half north of the supposed limits of the sugar region. Every sugar broker in New-Orleans is apprised of the fact that Louisiana sugar is far superior to that made in the West India islands. Some years ago, before I was aware of

this fact, a personal friend in Indiana sent me a good horse, and requested me to send his value in the best quality Orleans brown sugar. Wishing to show my gratitude for the good horse, I aimed at sending a superior article to that ordered, and purchased a number of boxes of the best white Havana in market. But I found he did not like it, and objected to it as being neither so sweet nor palatable as what he called *Orleans sugar*—the product of Louisiana plantations. This I attributed at the time to a perverted taste and want of judgment, but subsequent investigation proved that he was correct. The prevalent idea, got up by politicians to get protection, that sugar is a forced product in Louisiana, and the cane plant a sickly exotic, defeated its object, and was ruinous to the sugar interest of the southern states, as it caused the duty to be reduced to the revenue standard, and prevented that protection which the introduction of a new agricultural product, requiring an immense outlay of capital, needed and would have got, and no doubt will get, when the truth becomes generally known, that our soil and climate are the best for it in the world. Nothing more is needed to give to the southern states the same monopoly in the production of sugar that they have in cotton, than a knowledge of its natural history generally diffused among our people, and a sufficient protection of the sugar interest to induce our agriculturists to make the first outlay in the expensive machinery and buildings necessary in the culture and manufacture of the cane into sugar. After capital and labor have, by a wise governmental encouragement, been once extensively diverted to that branch of industry, it would need no further aid, and instead of being an extensive importer of foreign sugars, the United States would soon become as great an exporter of that product of our soil as of cotton. However parties may differ on the tariff question, touching the sugar interest, while that branch of industry is paraded before Congress, dressed in the false colors of a sickly beggar, to be a perpetual tax upon other interests, without the hope of any ulterior and remunerating benefit, there could be no essential differences of opinion in the tariff and anti-tariff parties in regard to the question of not only giving encouragement, but ample encourage-

ment, to the domestication of an agricultural product, for which our country is better adapted than any other on the globe—requiring nothing more than temporary aid to become, like cotton, one of the heaviest and most profitable of our exports.

But the truth, that our country is better adapted than any other on the whole globe for the profitable culture of the cane, should first be made to appear. The errors which have been thrown around the question by a certain class of politicians, who opposed the acquisition of Texas, and those favorable to forcing upon the country by high tariffs, various branches of industry, without discriminating between seed sown on stony ground, and that in which it would take deep root and sustain itself, must first be removed. Thus, it has been assumed by the Hon. Joel Poinsett, and politicians of that class, who opposed the re-annexation of Texas, and at present assumed by the opposers of the fair acquisition of Cuba by purchase, that the cane of Cuba is eight times as rich as that of Louisiana, and that the lands of Mexico, on the authority of Humboldt, yield twice as much sugar per hectare as the West India islands. Hence the inference was drawn, that the acquisition of either country would ruin the sugar planters of Louisiana. Most of our planters believed, and still believe, the policy of acquiring territory further south, to be suicidal to their pecuniary interests; yet many of them, glorious patriots! were foremost in advocating it as a public good, although to be reached by their own bankruptcy. Happily, however, the assumption, that the cane is a sickly exotic in Louisiana, yielding less saccharine matter than that of the West India islands, or any other country, is without foundation. The statement quoted from Humboldt, and published in Vol. III. of De Bow's *Industrial Resources of the South and West*, page 284, that "a hectare of the best land in Mexico will produce no less than 5,600 pounds of raw sugar," is admitted as a truth. It is also admitted that Humboldt may be right in the statement, that that is double the amount produced from the same quantity of land in Cuba. But before permitting these facts of Humboldt to be used any longer as a bugbear for political effect, it is necessary to ascertain how much sugar a hectare of land

in Louisiana will produce. If it will produce only 350 pounds, as agreed by Poinsett, and Cuba will produce 2,800 pounds, then would the acquisition of that island break up the sugar culture of Louisiana.

A hectare of land is about two and a half acres. By referring to the Pica-yune newspaper of this city of the 29th of December, 1852, it will be perceived, that Mr. James Wafford, of St. Mary, Louisiana, made, the past season, on forty acres of land in that parish, 190 hogsheds of sugar of 1,000 lbs. each, or 11,775 lbs. per hectare—beating the best land of Cuba or Mexico more than two to one. By referring to the Banner of the 25th of December, published in Franklin, La., it will be seen that many planters in the vicinity of that town have just made upwards of three hogsheds of sugar, of 1,000 lbs. each, per acre, or 7,500 to the hectare—exceeding Humbolt's highest figures by a thousand pounds per hectare. I have the best authority for stating, that W. W. Wilkins, Esq., of the parish of St. James, made, the past season, 48 hogsheds of sugar on twelve acres of ground, or ten thousand pounds per hectare. Col. Preston, of Assumption, averaged 3,000 lbs. per acre (7,500 lbs. per hectare) on 200 acres of ground. Harpou, of Pointe Coupee, made on some of his land this season 10,000 lbs. per hectare, nearly doubling Mexico. The other assumption, that the cane juice of Cuba is eight times as rich as that of Louisiana, is positively disproved by direct experiment, viz.: the analysis of Louisiana cane juice by the learned and neglected Avequin, of New-Orleans. (See De Bow's Review, July, 1848, "Avequin on the Sugar-cane.")

Prof. McCulloh (see his "Report to Congress") found the cane juice of one of the finest plantations in Cuba, the Ingenio Saratoga, near Matanzas, to contain 18.07 per cent. of sugar. No reliable author who has written on the subject has ever made it exceed 25 per cent. Prof. McCulloh strangely omitted to test the quantity of sugar in Louisiana cane, and left Poinsett's statement (Avequin's) uncorrected. To supply that omission, and to test the correctness of Avequin's statements, last November I took various specimens of Louisiana cane, picked up at random from the sugar plantations in the vicinity of New-Orleans, to Prof. Riddell's chemical la-

boratory, and had the quantity of sugar contained in the juice accurately ascertained by the same process as that employed by Prof. McCulloh. It was found to average from fifteen to sixteen per cent. of pure crystallizable sugar. W. P. Riddell, A. M., perfectly familiar with such matters, made the examination, Prof. Riddell looking on.

Avequin makes the general average of Louisiana cane juice 15.35 per cent.; specific gravity, 1061.5, corresponding with  $8\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  Baumé's saccharometer. According to McCulloh's analysis of the juice of canes in Cuba, on one of the best plantations in the island, selected by him from canes nearly twice as old as those of Louisiana, it did not exceed in richness the general average of Louisiana cane juice more than  $2\frac{3}{4}$  per cent, instead of being eight times as rich, as Poinsett and other politicians opposed to the acquisition of southern territory have been led to believe on incorrect testimony. But if it be admitted, for argument sake, that Louisiana cane juice, expressed from canes from seven to nine months old, be a little less rich in sugar than that of Cuba, expressed from canes from fourteen to eighteen months old, it must be admitted that this difference in richness is more than made up by the greater amount of juice yielded per ton of cane in Louisiana over and above the quantity of juice yielded by the same weight of cane in Cuba.

Almost all the writers on the subject, among whom is Avequin, seemed to take for granted, that the greater yield in juice per ton of cane in Louisiana than Cuba, was owing to the mills and machinery being better in the former than in the latter. But, according to McCulloh, the mills and machinery are better in Cuba than in Louisiana. Five experiments, each made on 1,000 lbs. of cane, on the plantation of Marmillion, St. James, Louisiana, gave from 63 to 64 per cent. of juice, as reported by Avequin; whereas the yield in juice of Cuba cane, reported by McCulloh as ascertained by the Prof. of Chemistry of the University of Havana, was only 45 per cent. on Count O'Reilly's plantation, 57 per cent. on Don Montalvo's, and 35 per cent. on Don Diagro's. It would therefore appear that Louisiana cane is from 10 to 20 per cent. richer in juice than that of Cuba.

The juice examined by the Riddells, at my instance, was found to average

159 grammes of pure crystallizable sugar per litre, or 7119 gms. per gallon. By referring to Porter's work on the Culture and Manufacture of the Sugar-cane, (p. 59, second edition, London, 1843,) it will be seen that a pound—that is, 7000 gms.—of sugar from a gallon of West India best cane juice is considered a good yield. On a plantation in Jamaica, for eleven years, the annual average yield rose a little above, and fell a little below, a pound of sugar per gallon of cane juice. In St. Vincent and Grenada the yield was no more. On all the islands, the juice from cane only twelve months old did not exceed half a pound per gallon; whereas the Louisiana cane juice, from plants less than nine months old, yielded upwards of a pound of pure white sugar per gallon.

The question, whether Louisiana is within or without the boundaries of the sugar region proper, should first be settled before the northern boundary of that region can be ascertained. That Louisiana is the heart and centre of the sugar region proper, is proved by the facts that it not only produces more sugar to each laborer, and more to each acre, than any of the West India islands, any part of the East Indies, Mauritius, Demerara, or Mexico, but a *better article*. It is well known that two hogsheds to the acre, and eight or ten hogsheds of sugar to each effective operative, is no uncommon yield of Louisiana plantations. As high as four and three quarters have been made, the last season, per acre, and three hogsheds have been very common. An acre of well-manured and well-cultivated ground in the West Indies and in other tropical countries, will sometimes yield as much, or more than that; but then it is to be recollected that the canes are not cut in tropical climates until they are from fourteen to sixteen months old, whereas in this country they are cut at from seven to nine months old, and the same acre will produce a crop every year, instead of every two years. The biennial crop of an acre in tropical climates ought to double the annual crop of our temperate climate to be equal to it. But, so far from doubling, it does not equal our annual crop, as will appear by reference to G. R. Porter on the Cane Culture in the West Indies. By referring to the first edition of that standard work, which edition contains the statistical tables, it will be seen that

the average quantity of sugar produced per acre on those plantations from which reliable statistics were obtained, is so small, that any Louisiana planter would abandon the culture if his land did not produce more to the acre and more to the hand or laborer than the West India plantations. Thus, (see page 328, first edition,) eighty-nine negroes and 135 acres in cane only produced 120 hogsheds of 1,000 lbs. each. On the same page, a brag plantation, with half the land in cane and 150 negroes, we are informed, made 185,600 lbs. of sugar, or 185½ hogsheds. Now, the Orange Grove plantation, a little below Donaldsonville, made the last season, with only 106 negroes, old and young, men, women, and children included, 725 hogsheds of first quality sugar, and 175 hogsheds of inferior brown sugar—900 hogsheds in all, of 1,000 lbs. each. Five of the above-mentioned negroes walk on wooden legs. At page 326, we find that, in Barbadoes, 86 grown negroes, 38 girls and boys, and 26 children, produced 185½ hogsheds of 1,000 lbs. each. Now, Mr. Wilkins, of St. James, the last season, made 900 hogsheds of sugar with sixty hands. At page 323, we have the statistics of a plantation in the Island of Tortola, with 135 acres in cane, and cultivated by 89 negroes, producing only 124½ hogsheds of 1,000 lbs. each; whereas in Louisiana it would be considered a poor crop if the same land and force did not produce three times as much. Whenever an acre of West India land exceeds two hogsheds, it will be found that it is by what is called garden cultivation—irrigation, manuring, and constantly stirring the soil. But in Louisiana, where negro labor is so valuable and land so cheap, garden or high cultivation, to force from the land its utmost yield, is not practised as in other countries where labor is cheaper.

Whatever may be said against negro slavery in the southern states, one thing is certain, that the people erroneously called slaves, (if the European ideas of slavery be applied to them,) are paid higher wages than any agricultural peasantry of Europe. The wages are not paid in silver or gold, but in those more substantial comforts of life, which the wages paid to European field laborers, or to the 150 millions of British East India peasantry, falsely called freemen, would not purchase. A great deal of the old lands of



Louisiana, as cane is a very exhausting crop, may not average more than a hog-head, or as much to the acre, but as the laborers are better fed and clothed, and more attention paid to their health, comfort and happiness, they make more sugar than an equal number of laborers in any other country in the world where the cane is cultivated. From Porter and other high authorities, we learn that the average quantity of sugar, produced in the several West India islands, is under, rather than over, a hoghead for each negro on the plantations—often not equaling more than that for each effective laborer. Here, in Louisiana, five hog-heads for each effective laborer is considered bad cropping. From Porter's work on the Cane Culture, 1st edition, pages 246 and 247, it will be seen that the average quantity of sugar produced per acre in Mexico, is only 750 lbs. From other authorities, we learn that from one to two peons are assigned to each acre. From "Dr. Roxburg on the Hindoo Method of Cultivating the Cane," from "Dr. Hamilton's Statistical Survey of Dinaj-pore," and "Dr. Buchanan's Journey from Madras to Malabar," we learn that the East India laborers, per capita, do not produce as much sugar as those of the West Indies or Mexico. In Java, with two laborers to the acre, the average of the middling and best quality lands is from 1200 to 1800 lbs. per acre. In Mauritius, 2000 lbs. per acre is considered a good yield, so says Porter, page 242. This is the island, which, some time ago, alarmed the sugar planters of the East and West Indies, Brazil and Demerara, so much, lest its wonderful fertility and the richness of its cane should break up the sugar culture everywhere else. I am sure that even its annexation to the United States would not scare our planters, particularly such men as Wilkins and Wafford. Facts, when interrogated, respond that Louisiana is not without, but in the centre of the sugar region proper, if the quantity and quality of the sugar produced, by a given amount of labor, be the guides in locating that region. Yet the same logic, the same errors and prejudices, which would throw even the southern borders of Louisiana too far north for the cane to be profitably cultivated, except as a sickly exotic, fostered in the sunshine of governmental favors, have had an injurious effect upon the cotton planting interest, in causing

that interest to glut the cotton market from the lands that could have been more profitably put in cane, if the truth had been known, and that liberal encouragement extended to the culture the change of labor from one agricultural product to another always requires. But if Congress will not give a sufficient duty, men of science ought to interpose and send forth the scientific truth, at present confined to their closets, that the sugar made in a frosty climate is worth double the money of that made in tropical regions—being more healthy and nutritious. If this truth were generally known, the cane culture in the United States would no longer be confined to a narrow strip of land on and near the 30th parallel of latitude, but would be extended further north, and every one would be anxious to know how far north this good, vital, *dextrogyrate* sugar, the restorer of health, the renovator of age, the beautifier of the complexion, and the preserver of the teeth, would be profitably carried.

The extension of the cane culture would enhance the value of every other southern agricultural product, and would thereby enrich the whole South. The South enriched would enrich the West, and, like Ruth and Naomi, they would cleave together. The serious fears entertained by our ablest statesmen of that fanaticism which [monarchical Europe is artfully using for the purpose of overthrowing the American Republic of confederated states, destroying their power and blotting out their bright example, and at the same time depriving them of their main source of wealth by transferring the rich productions of southern agriculture to India and Australia, covering the objects of the unceasing war it is waging against the labor and institutions of the South, under the false pretence of philanthropy for the negro race—has already, in a great degree, been dispelled by the people of nearly all the states in the Union having weighed transatlantic philanthropy and found it wanting. But the most effectual check which abolitionism has received, or could receive, until another Cromwell rises in England, has been given by the Great West saying to the South, in the language of Ruth, "*Whither thou goest I will go, thy people shall be my people, and thy God my God. Where thou diest will I die, and there will I be buried.*"

With the Great West, steadfastly minded to cleave to the South, abolitionism will be deprived of the power to force disunion upon these happy states. The extension of the sugar culture would open new avenues and markets for western industry, and soon the two sections, the Great West and the South, (*ere long to be the Great South*;) would be indissolubly united by a network of rail-ways.

The object of this paper is not to fix the limits, but inquire of fact and science how far north the profitable culture of the cane can be carried. Happily for the interests of southern and western agriculture, a few patriotic and practical men have broken the fetters of prejudice by boldly carrying the culture of the cane a degree or more of latitude further north than the boundary which prejudice and error had assigned as the utmost limits of its profitable culture. Already they are reaping a rich reward in dollars and cents. But they are doing more than merely enriching themselves. By turning cotton into cane fields they are laying the foundation of a prosperous future to the cotton planters. Lands, tired from the cotton culture, bring the best cane. The cotton planters in the southern section of the cotton region would not reap all the benefit; because those in the northern portion too far north for the cane, would be benefited in the enhancement of the price of the article. Moreover, the best and most convenient market in the world, for what is called up-country or western produce, including horses, mules, beef and pork, would be opened to the Great West, and that vast region would be linked indissolubly to the fortunes of the South. While the cotton market, from over production, is kept down, and the cane culture confined to the half-exhausted lands of the southern boundary of Louisiana, neither the cotton nor the sugar planters can afford to be the extensive purchasers of northwestern produce they would be, if cotton commanded a higher price, and sufficient encouragement were extended to the sugar interest, to divert a large portion of the land and labor, now appropriated to the cotton branch of industry, to that of sugar. Under high prices of cotton and sugar our planters would find it cheaper to buy horses and mules than to breed them; they would plant less corn and more cane and cotton. Whereas, under

low prices, they have already begun to find, that the profits of those plantations which breed their own horses and mules, and make their own corn, beef and pork, are the greatest. But if this practice should become general, the northwestern states will be deprived of their best market, and will link themselves by rail-roads, as they are now doing, with the better markets of the northeastern Atlantic states. Notwithstanding, they will bring their produce to the South, if, enriched by an extension of the sugar culture, it can afford to pay better prices for western produce than the northeastern states and Europe. It will be thus enriched if the cane culture be extended even as high up as the 32d parallel of latitude—only half a degree above Mr. Calhoun's plantation, where the best sugar is made. For more than twenty-years, P. M. Lapice has grown excellent cane near Natchez, in 31½°. It has also for many years been found to succeed very well on Lake St. Joseph, north of 32°. It grows well also in the vicinity of Monroe, on the Washita, in 32½°. I am creditably informed that there is no finer looking sugar-cane anywhere to be found than in Marshall county, Mississippi, near Holly Springs, but a little below the 35th parallel of latitude. Gen. Felix Huston has found from experience that peaches ripen and come to perfection much sooner at Vicksburg, in 32½°, than two degrees further south, near Baton Rouge.

The archives of medicine contain more useful knowledge on the subject of the sugar-cane and its essential salt, than all the other sciences put together. Dutrone, Roxburg, Edwards, Hamilton, Buchanan, Hoffman, Pelletier, Magendie, and more than half the authors who have ever written on the subject, belonged to the medical profession; and last but not least, that profession may properly claim *Avequin*, a learned druggist and chemist of this city, who has been worth more than his weight in gold a dozen times over to the planting interest, by the light which he has made science throw upon the culture of the cane, and the manufacture of its juice into sugar.

It was Avequin who, many years ago, explained the action of lime as a defecating agent, and the necessity of using it pure, mixed with distilled water. He made the discovery of a peculiar kind of natural alcohol in cane juice, which

he called *cerosie*. The great chemists, Liebig and Dumas, gave the Orleanian full credit for his discovery, but as yet its importance is not fully appreciated. Prof. McCulloh improperly confounded the substance discovered by Avequin with bees-wax, to which it has no kind of resemblance. He also proved that the juice of the cane, in its normal condition, does not contain a particle of acid in a free state, and only a little carbonic acid at the moment of compression, thus arresting the expensive and destructive war the sugar makers had been carrying for centuries against wind-mills in the shape of acid in the juice. The indication of acid in the juice, by the test with litmus paper, he proved to be a deception caused by the presence of phosphate of lime. The existence of this last-mentioned popular remedy for breast complaints he was the first to prove existed in cane juice.

Avequin's method of using nothing but pure lime water to defecate the cane juice, is that pursued by P. M. Lapice, Esq., of St. James, who makes the best sugar in the world.

Unfortunately, however, for the South, if members of the medical profession interest themselves in matters of public utility, whether it be political economy, agriculture, manufactures, or internal improvements of any description, the ignorant, indolent, envious and jealous, are always ready to injure and curtail their usefulness by sneering at them as dangerous experimenters, crack-brained theorists, too learned for the practical duties of their profession; as if spending their leisure moments in the chemical laboratory, or at books or the writing-desk, would disqualify them for practice, more than if they had spent the same time in low chicanery, idle frivolity, or at the haunts of dissipation.

It is the ignorant who try dangerous experiments, not the wise and the learned. Every thing is experimental with the ignorant, whether they be planters, chemists or physicians. Learned planters do not spoil their sugar with experiments they know have been tried before and failed; nor do well-read physicians thus lose their patients. But in the hands of the ignorant, life and sugar are both in danger.

The usefulness of the celebrated Dr. Rush was so much curtailed by his being sneered at as a politician and jack-

of-all-trades, that nothing but his most consummate skill as a practical physician prevented his entire practice from being swept away from him. Those, with medicable wounds, who listened to the outcry of the illiberal and selfish against the American Hippocrates, often paid dearly for their folly in not finding the balm of Gilead of which he was the great dispenser. His name is on that immortal scroll—the Declaration of American Independence, and his fame as a skillful practical physician shines brighter as years roll on, as if to prove to after ages that eminent skill in practical medicine is not incompatible with that patriotism which takes an active part in subjects connected with the general welfare. So blighting to the private interests of professional men, particularly medical men, is any meddling with public affairs, that those who practice their profession more for the fees than for any good the knowledge they may derive from it may do the public, studiously avoid making themselves targets for the illiberal and envious, and never go an inch beyond the narrow limits of the routine duties they are paid for performing.

The southern people, southern institutions, and southern agriculture, are daily losing, from this European, selfish custom introduced among us, much useful knowledge, especially that acquired by practical physicians, which dies with its professors. But, as an encouragement to all those members of the medical profession, however illiterate or humble they may be, who may have acquired, or think they have acquired, by chance or otherwise, any knowledge which may be turned to purposes of public utility, Benjamin Rush is not dead and forgotten, as his defamers are; he still lives to smile upon them, and to beckon to them to make it known for public good.

Much error and obscurity still hang over the important subjects of the management of our negro peasantry—the amelioration of their condition—their *enlightenment*—the preservation of their health—the improvement of their morals, and the proper measures to make their services more valuable. The profession which deals with all the agencies influencing both mind and body, is better qualified, than any other, to throw light on these important subjects to southern agriculture.

Food and raiment, whether drawn

from the earth or animal kingdom, are more intimately connected with the cure and prevention of diseases, than those substances called drugs or medicines—they require the same careful study; being also more intimately connected with mind, the disposition, and moral qualities. Thus medicine becomes, from necessity, an associate of agriculture, as it must teach the properties of the various agricultural products, and their influences on the mind and body. If it aspires no higher than to a knowledge of a few drugs, it is not the godlike science of medicine, but mere quackery. That the science of medicine, properly so-called, can throw much light on the qualities and properties of sugar, and the natural history of the cane plant, no one will question, who has looked into its archives. The few scraps of knowledge which my imperfect acquaintance with that science, which I have not half mastered, has enabled me to pick up, are communicated as a duty, hoping that they may be of some benefit to southern agriculture, and promote the public good. To go where duty calls, regardless of the good or evil on the way, I fain would make a rule of action. The writing of this paper I conceive to be a duty, and in its performance nothing else is looked to but the duty itself, or I would not write it, knowing it will be used to my prejudice, as a proof that I am a politician, and, of course, do not know how to give quinine and calomel.

I find, from the records of medicine, that long ago it has been ascertained, that, at a very small expense of time and trouble, in latitudes below thirty-five degrees, the cane tops can be so arranged over the ratoons as to protect them from the hardest frosts. There is also a recently discovered scientific truth, which has an important bearing on the practicability of greatly extending the profitable culture of the cane in a northern direction. It is, that the sugar in cane juice is a vital product, or at least subject to the same laws as fibrin and other vital products of the kind. The saccharine matter, in other fruits, is produced by chemical affinities and not by vital actions; whereas that contained in the cane is formed by vital laws, as muscle is, and not by chemical agencies, as in other plants.

This vital product called cane sugar, is found to rotate the plane of polarization of

polarized light to the right, whereas the solutions of the chemical sugars rotate to the left. I have proved by direct experiment, that fresh cane juice is death and destruction to certain animalculæ, particularly those called the rotifera, from their seeming to revolve like wheels. When fed on carmine, and viewed through Prof. Riddell's inverted microscope, they were compared by a bystander to *Tom Thumb* steamboats, an apt comparison, from the rapid vibration of the cilia, looking like the movement of the paddle-wheels of a steamboat under headway. The scientific name is *euchlanis*. (See Pritchard's *Infusorial Animalcules*, London, 1852.) Other animalculæ were fancifully compared to bears in a cane-brake;—(*leucophrys*'s *patula* of Pritchard. The substance like cane being the *ocillaria* of Riddell.)

The professor fed them with various matters, which they devoured with the same rapacity as the ravenous beasts of the forest devour their food. They were tried with human blood, which they gobbled down with a keen relish. At length a little fresh cane juice was put among them, and it killed the whole of them in a few seconds, as if it had been a clap of thunder. Prof. Riddle, myself, and all present, were greatly astonished at the result of the experiment, which was repeated several times with the same effect. He tried to re-animate them, but failed. Other nameless animalculæ, resembling tape-worms, broke into two parts when touched with the cane juice, and each part soon died.

Few or no insects feed upon the juice of the cane. It has been supposed, that an insect invisible to the naked eye, the *aphis* of Linnaeus, so destructive some years to entire crops of cane in the West Indies, feeds upon the juice, producing the disease called the *blast*. But it is more probable, from the experiments of the Rev. L. Guilding, that the *blast* is caused by the insects feeding upon the leaves, the proper lungs of the plant, and which do not contain an atom of cane sugar. He advised the dead and injured leaves to be stripped off, which was found to be so effectual, that the Ceres gold medal was awarded him for the advice. (See vol. 46. *Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of the Arts, &c.* St. Vincent.)

There is in some of the West India



islands, and also in Louisiana, a kind of grub, called the *borer*, which does more or less damage to the cane; but it is destroyed by the Rev. L. Guilding's process. It is bred in the leaves and bores into the rings of the joints of the cane. These rings contain mucilage and gummy matter, not sugar, which is deposited in the cells of the pithy substance between the rings. The ants are often seen to be very busy in the cane field, as they are everywhere; but none except the white ant, occasionally met with in the West Indies, seem to do any damage to the plant. The overseers look upon the little ant, the *formica omnivora* of Linneus, as a protector of the cane plant from the depredations of other insects. But it is protected by a higher law, which enacts that the juice, so wholesome and nutritious for all warm-blooded animals, shall be poisonous and destructive to the cold-blooded, including animalculæ.

Thus we learn from Magendie and other medical authors, that it will kill worms, toads and lizards, whether applied externally or given internally. But that pure cane juice and the sugar contained in it, is extremely wholesome and nutritious to warm-blooded animals, there is abundant proof. Dr. Rush says, that "sugar affords the greatest quantity of nourishment in a given quantity of matter of any subject in nature." Dr. Benj. Franklin long ago discovered that the virtue of certain nostrums resided entirely in the sugar they contained. Dr. Cullen asserts that the free use of sugar prevents malignant fevers. The French physicians were the first to discover, that good sugar would cure the scurvy and that bad sugar would produce it. Dr. Fothergill and Sir John Pringle ascertained that the plague never visits those countries where good sugar is liberally used as a diet. Dr. Tronchin owed his great celebrity to *eau sucré*, his principal remedy for most of the complaints he was called on to treat. The famous Dr. Dutrone considered good cane sugar "as the panacea of life, the invigorator of infancy, the restorer of health, the renovator of old age, and the best thing to soften the skin and to improve the complexion."

Travelers inform us, that those around the throne of the king of Cochin-China are compelled to eat a certain portion of sugar or sugar-cane daily, in order to preserve their good looks. I knew a

widow lady, the owner of a plantation north of the thirty-second parallel of latitude, who had always a large patch of sugar cane, ostensibly for the benefit of the negro children; but perhaps also for her own benefit, as the older she got the younger she looked. She may have looked into the history of Cochin-China; at any rate her success in growing excellent cane, so far north, was one fact which convinced me, that there must be some error in the prevalent opinion in regard to the climate most suitable for the cane culture.

Cane sugar, or that essential salt of pure cane juice scientifically called *dextrogyrate sugar*, from its solution rotating polarized light to the right, being a vital product, like flesh and blood, is governed by similar laws as soon as vitality is extinguished. The same rules and principles which apply to the preservation of the flesh of slaughtered animals, apply with all their force to the making of good sugar. Perfect cleanliness and *dispatch* are even more necessary in making good sugar than good pork. Cold weather, to prevent the rapid decomposition from occurring, which always takes place in the juice in hot, moist weather, if not immediately converted into crystallized sugar, is as necessary when the canes are cut as when hogs are killed. We often hear of hard frosts injuring the cane. It is not the frost or cold weather, but the warm weather after the frost, which does the damage. The hardest freeze will not hurt ripe cane, providing it be ground before a thaw, and immediately converted into sugar. In this it resembles the flesh of slaughtered animals. It is not the freeze, but the thaw, which would spoil the meat if left uncured. Hence the reason of the remarkable fact, that better sugar is made in Louisiana than in the West Indies; and better high up in the central portion of the state, where the cold is more uniform, than low down on the southern border, where the rains are more frequent and the thaws more rapid, spoiling the juice before it can be converted into sugar.

No other saccharine matter than *dextrogyrate* or vital sugar, rotating to the right, is contained in mature healthy cane. But as soon as the canes are cut, whether the juice be expressed or not, chemical changes begin to occur, if the weather be hot and moist, in the saccharine liquor,

unless the sugar be speedily separated from the foreign substances with which it is mixed by lime water. Instead of putrifying, like dead animal matter, fermentation takes place, and the *dextrogyrate* is converted into a *levogyrate*, or chemical sugar rotating to the left. In common language this is called molasses, or uncrystallizable sugar.—The refiner's art can convert it into glucose, and make it assume the solid crystalline form, looking pretty and white, and rotating to the right again; but no art can ever re-convert it into good, healthy, and nutritious cane-sugar. Louisiana molasses consists mostly of *dextrogyrate* sugar, in the form of syrup; while the West India article is mostly composed of *levogyrate* or uncrystallizable sugar, the product of fermentation. Hence, for table use, Louisiana has nearly driven the West India molasses out of the market.

There is a popular error, very prevalent, that because the cane, when planted, will continue to produce ratoon cane for twenty years or more in the West Indies, without planting the same land again, that those islands possess a decided advantage over any of our southern states, where the cane will only ratoon three or four years and requires to be planted every fourth year. But this is only a theoretical and not a practical advantage. The practice in the West Indies, particularly on the thin soils and on old estates, is to plant the same land every third year; whereas in Louisiana the common practice is to plant only every fourth year. (See Porter on the Sugar Cane, 2d London edition, 1843.) There can be no practical advantage to the West India planter, in the fact that cane will ratoon for a greater number of years in the tropical than in the temperate zone, as no labor is saved—the cane having to be planted as often in the one as in the other by those wanting to make good crops. The tropical planter, who depends upon the ratoon cane, after the fourth year loses more sugar than would twice pay the value of the labor saved. On fresh rich land the ratoons will give a tolerable yield the fifth or sixth year—but, on most of the land in the West Indies, great loss is sustained if the cane be not planted even oftener than is found necessary in Louisiana.

Another supposed advantage of the tropical planter over the American, is the

fact that the cane can be planted every month in the year and ground at any time which suits the convenience of the planter. But this, according to Porter, Wray, and the best authorities, is no advantage at all, because all those who pursue the practice of planting at any time and grinding at any time, make the most indifferent crops and the most inferior sugar. Within the tropics, or below the region of frost, the dry season has to be chosen for grinding, and the planting season has to be chosen with a view of giving the young plant the benefit of the rainy season. In Louisiana, the grinding or rolling season begins with the first cold or frosty weather and ends on or before Christmas. The quicker the grinding season is over the better. Cold weather matures the cane and prevents what is called the second growth, so apt to spoil the sugar in tropical climates, and even in Louisiana, if the autumn be hot, cloudy, and moist, instead of cold, dry and frosty. The cold of October, November and December, so much dreaded by the theorist, and which politicians, opposed to the acquisition of Cuba, or any territory further South, use as a bugbear to frighten our people with a belief that they never could compete, successfully, in making sugar with the inhabitants of hotter countries, if admitted into the Union on an equal footing with us,—is the very thing which every planter and overseer begins to pray for, from the middle of October onward, until the cane is manufactured into sugar. Cold is, therefore, an advantage, instead of a disadvantage; and if sugar can be made cheaper in the East Indies, or any where else, it is because labor is cheaper, and the laborers are not fed and clothed so well as the Louisiana negroes.

The people of the United States, particularly our politicians, editors, reviewers, lawyers, divines, merchants and agriculturists, seem to be acquainted with every art and science, every product of the soil, and every branch of industry, better than with sugar, or the habits and nature of the plant from which it is produced. Medical standard authorities are seldom consulted by the classes just named: hence, physicians ought to be heard.

The superiority of Louisiana sugar is not attributed to its true cause—superiority of soil and climate; but to some superiority in the culture of the cane,

and its manufacture into sugar. The fact is, however, that, with a few exceptions, Louisiana is behind instead of ahead of most other sugar-growing countries, in machinery and the facilities afforded by art and science for the production of sugar; so says Prof. McCulloh. The text-book of most of the sugar-makers of Louisiana was published in 1732, the year that Washington was born. Most of them have no book at all, but make sugar by the traditional knowledge derived from the Spanish work above alluded to. The American plow has been made to supersede much of the hoe work in the culture of the cane, and the steam engine has been substituted in the sugar mill for horse-power; but, in other respects, few or no improvements, until a very recent period, and only very partially adopted, have been made upon the Spanish practice in vogue a century and a half ago, while the English in the East Indies and the West, Demerara, Mauritius, Australia, and throughout every colony where cane will grow, have pressed into their service all the improvements in the arts and sciences, and encouraged men of learning and genius, by the most tempting rewards, to lend their aid to that extensive association of nobles, plebeians, priests and politicians, who are leagued together to monopolize the sugar culture, and to reap all the profits to be derived from the most valuable agricultural product the earth produces, the Americans have been standing still, unconscious that they occupy the best sugar region on the globe, and have only to adopt the modern improvements in the culture and manufacture of the cane to gain at once the prize, which Great Britain and the East India Company have, for more than half a century, been straining every nerve to obtain. It was to encourage the culture of the cane and cotton plant in India, and to set one hundred and fifty millions of people to work for a few in a distant island, that slave labor in the West Indies was abolished.

To prevent America from continuing to be a competitor in tropical products, an organized system of agitation, about the time of West India emancipation, was set on foot in England by the East India Company, to overthrow slave labor in the cotton and sugar growing states of the union. The disgusting work, Uncle Tom's Cabin, would never have been reprinted, or a dozen copies sold, in moral

England, if the statesmen, gentry, and nobility of that island did not look upon it as a device calculated to serve their purpose, in turning public sentiment against that species of American labor, whose products come in competition with those produced in the immense colonial possessions of Great Britain, in the east, and throughout the world. Happily, however, for the interests of mankind, Americans are beginning to perceive that British East India philanthropy for American negroes consists in a desire to monopolize those rich Southern staple commodities—the products of negro labor, by tying the negro's hands, under the name of freedom, and sending him back to that barbarism, want and wretchedness, from which the patriarchal government, called slavery, rescued him. A few of our planters, however, are beginning to avail themselves of the advantages to be derived from pressing into the service of the sugar interest the science of medicine, and the modern discoveries in the arts and sciences, so long in the hands of the English and French. They have even improved on the French and English in the art of manufacturing sugar. The best sugar in the world is now made in Louisiana, by what is called "*the first process*," directly from the fresh cane juice, nothing but Avequin's lime water being used as a clarifier. In three or four days, a perfectly pure, crystallized white sugar is manufactured, drained, dried, and put up ready for market, from the fresh juice, as it runs from the mill. Lapice, Armat, Lesseps, Degruy, Levois, Zeringue, Hulett, Urquhart, Lanfear, Morgan, Davenport, Benjamin, Packwood, are a few of those who are making sugar according to the most approved method, and who have added many improvements themselves. Their method is spreading among the planters throughout the state, and will not only supersede the old (1732) Spanish method, which converts a large portion of the vital into chemical, sickly sugar, but will carry the culture of the cane to 32½° north, and perhaps further. With a few years' governmental encouragement to the sugar interest, to enable our planters to provide themselves with the improved machinery, such as is now in successful operation on the plantations of the above-named gentleman, America would drive the East and West India sugar out of market, and greatly benefit mankind,

by giving them the purest, most wholesome, and nutritious article of diet the earth produces.

Those who wish to test the practicability of growing good cane in any latitude in the United States below thirty-five degrees, should plant the cane at the same time that Indian corn is planted in the particular latitude where the experiment is made. Good rich land should be selected. That which produces the best corn will generally produce the best cane. The cultivation of the two plants is very nearly the same. In the vicinity of New-Orleans the cane is planted in January or February, and comes up early in March. In about  $7\frac{1}{2}$  months from the time of sprouting, it begins to mature sufficiently to be cut and converted into sugar. In higher latitudes its maturity

is hastened by the cold weather. The canes roasted in the fire, and the juice sucked while it is hot, is an excellent remedy for coughs and bad colds. The juice eaten with parched corn, is a popular and valuable remedy for dyspepsia. Nature seems to have implanted so strong a love for cane juice in children, as if it were on purpose to defend them against the evils produced by decayed teeth and worms. Whether sugar be made from the juice or not, a patch of cane, on every plantation where it will come to maturity, would be more than worth the ground it may occupy and the trouble of cultivation. Such experiments would also do much in determining the important agricultural question: "*How far north the culture of the cane plant can be profitably extended in the United States?*"

#### ART. II.—SALUBRITY OF CITIES RESTORED BY THE INTRODUCTION OF PURE AIR.

[SEVERAL years ago (April, 1842,) there appeared a paper in the Southern Quarterly Review, entitled "Refrigeration and Ventilation of Cities," which was attributed to Dr. Gurrie, of Florida. The writer concluded with these words—"While it must be conceded that we are able to cool a city to any degree required by the habits, comfort and health of its inhabitants, it must also be acknowledged that we have the capacity to regulate the quantity of moisture it may hold in solution, and thus diminish, and probably remove, two fertile sources of disease in all climates." The mode of effecting these results he proposes is by the construction of machinery for the compression of air. "We propose," he says, "to effect the compression of air by means of water, wind, or steam-power, into suitable reservoirs in the suburbs of cities, and thence to transmit it through conduits, like water or gas, so that it may be distributed and set free in the houses, and even in the streets and squares of the city."

The paper which we now publish contains many views which are equally novel, and as they relate to a matter of much public interest in the South and West, we give them a place, remarking at the same time that the germs of many a great truth lie often at the bottom of what seems at first sight but speculation, and that the head of the corner has often been constructed from the once rejected stone of the builder. We are willing to give our contributor a hearing, and to open, through our pages, the discussion of the subject to the scientific.]—EDITOR.

Impure air being the great fountain of disease, more than any, perhaps all other causes, I have felt that this rock from which the waters of bitterness have so long and copiously flowed, has been too much neglected by the learned. Analysis has failed to detect the subtle poison lurking in this universal fluid; the most powerful microscope has been unable to discover the invisible arrows of death, constantly flying on the wings of the wind; and though chemistry professes, I believe, to be able to disinfect the universal element, when tainted by unsalubrious substances, yet it has been put to but little practical use in protect-

ing mankind from the evils of a contaminated atmosphere.

The efforts of the scientific having been so barren of results, it seems that the only hope of relief for suffering humanity is in simple, but untried mechanical means.

Writing from a secluded district, remote from books, I recollect having read, but cannot now tell where, how the London club-houses are ventilated with a salubrious atmosphere, by first passing through water the air intended for circulation in their crowded apartments. This is the only instance which I now remember to have heard of purification



by mechanical, or, perhaps, *this* should be called chemical means.

I wish to direct attention to a process more simple still. Instead of endeavoring to purify a contaminated atmosphere, I would, by mechanical agency, bring, where most needed, one already pure.

Millions of men are compelled not only to work during the day, but to sleep during the night, in infected air, though there may be, within a few hundred feet of their apartments, an inexhaustible supply of the pure uncontaminated article to be had, if not for the asking, for the bringing, by very simple means.

Air is known to be cooler, and believed—perhaps I might say *known*—to be purer the higher we ascend from the earth. Miasma, the great infecting substance, is known, by experience, to be more dangerous during night than the day. It is known, that men may remain, during the day, in a malarious district with impunity, provided they sleep at night in a salubrious atmosphere.

The well-known principles of pneumatics teach us, that air may be forced through a tube, of any length, from one point to another. We see this operation constantly performed by steam and other power. In the English coal mines, pure air is forced through them, from above ground, sometimes for miles, by the power of steam. In like manner, air is forced through tubes, to supply those working in diving bells. I learn, from the *Génie Industriel*, through that excellent paper, *The Scientific American*, that the Northern Hospital of France is ventilated in the following manner: "The air is taken from a tower on the top of the building, so as to be always pure, and in summer cool. It is sent inside in a quantity invariably equal, and of the same power, by numerous apertures in the centre of the rooms, which it passes along from one end to the other, and issues by eighteen orifices, without its action being neutralized by opening one or all the windows." And we see it every day, by human muscles, forced through the pipes of hand and blacksmith's bellows. Sometimes fire is used as the most convenient propelling agent. The large apartments of the British parliament-house are supplied with fresh air by this agent, through ventilating chimneys. As it is expelled by the rarefaction of

the fires in those at one end, to supply the vacuum, it is drawn down and through the rooms from those at the other, as, in cold weather, it is drawn whistling through the key-holes and other small apertures of our rooms while blazing fires are in the chimneys.

Now let your sleeping apartments be made air-tight, and any common lathed and plastered room may be made close enough for this purpose. Let it be connected with one end of a tube, the other of which shall extend into the air to such an altitude as will reach a pure current. By means of fire, or some other propelling power, the air may be forced out of the room opposite the end where it enters through the tube, giving a pure circulation at such times as may be desired. The height to which the ventilating tube will have to be carried to reach a salubrious region must depend on experience, but I have no doubt, in most localities, it would be found at the upper extremity of such a mast as could be raised at a trifling expense. It is said to have been noticed, when the cholera was in Montreal, that meat became putrid in less time than usual; but some hung upon one of the steeples of the city escaped the rapid change. In some of the great plagues which have desolated most of the large cities of the world, their violence became mitigated in those subjects who occupied the upper stories of the houses.

But suppose that neither by masts nor towers nor other contrivance, we can penetrate the regions of purity, we know that in the neighborhood of most miasmatic districts and large towns are salubrious places, where the air is healthy near the earth, and which can be reached by horizontal tubes of sufficient extent. To perpendicular tubes, the main objection is the uncertainty of reaching an unadulterated region. To horizontal, the expense only is to be considered, purity can *always be known*. The expense would depend upon the distance the air would have to be carried and population to be supplied. The simplest material would answer for ventilating tubes, such as that of which our common stone jugs are made, glass, and many other cheap substances. Even a common tunnel, or covered ditch, coated with a proper cement, with solid tubes to span or pass through or under water, would, I have no doubt, dispense with any

other, except connecting tubes at each end. Such water as might percolate through the cement and collect at the lowest points could be let off in the daytime, or received through the valves of covered wells to be sunk at such places. And when we consider that the ditch, as a tube itself, or to receive a glass or other tubes, need be only of such depth as to secure it from injury, and give an equable temperature to the air; that it can follow the undulations of the earth's surface; and that covering with the earth would make the joints of the tubes air tight, the expense would be inconsiderable for the benefits that would be obtained in many towns and rich miasmatic districts, by the use of pure air thus brought from adjacent hills. When brought for the use of towns, in one common tube, the air could be distributed to the various dwellings in the way so common in the distribution of water. Each dwelling could have its own power to compel the circulation of the pure fluid, through its apartments; or by other pipes, connecting with one common reservoir or main tube, one power could be used for the whole town. The air approaching the town by a common trunk could be made to ramify so as to furnish every house requiring it, and then, by connecting with another, common to all, would make its exit by the force of a common power. In districts with a scattered population, a large common trunk for conducting, and small pipes for distributing the fluid through the neighborhood, might be used for all, but the power could not be common.

To those who look on difficulties as impossibilities, judgment of condemnation has, no doubt, been pronounced by such as may have read thus far. But the considerate who will deliberately hear and investigate before condemning, will fairly consider the legitimate question, properly propounded, in all enterprises,—“Will it pay?” Will the advantages to be derived authorize the trouble and expense? No certain estimate of expenses can be made; but from what has been said, they would be inconsiderable. The nearest data in my power is the expense of under-draining wet lands by the use of tiles. In England they lay pipes one and a half inch bore three feet below the surface for less than sixty dollars per mile. If ventilating pipes of sufficient bore to serve a

population of five or ten thousand should cost ten, twenty, or even forty times this sum per mile, in many places, it would be the best investment that could be made. When once laid, the tubes would need no repairs during the generation that might perform the task. As the air usually needs be forced through them during but a few months in the year, and at night only, the propelling power could cost but little. I have been considering the expense of bringing air from a distance of miles. If it can be reached by perpendicular tubes the expense may be considered of but small account compared to the benefits expected.

Individuals relying on fire for the moving power need expend no more for fuel than would be usual for warming their rooms in winter. In the French hospital before mentioned the most economical means—such as the use of hot water, stones, etc.—are used to warm the six wards of the establishment, costing during the winter \$2,805, while the cost for ventilation during summer is but \$935. Indeed, of so little account is the expense of ventilation for the “whole year” that it is estimated to “cost nothing,” inasmuch as the steam engine used pays for itself in the performance of other services. Much more can we hope that steam or water-power, sufficient to ventilate the sleeping apartments of a large town during night and for a few months only, would cost almost nothing, as it could be used for mechanical purposes during the day without interruption.

It is hardly necessary to notice that the ventilating fires could be placed in one of a suit of rooms, or the inmates so shielded as to protect them from uncomfortable heat in warm weather.

If the expense of procuring the invaluable commodity be uncertain, but *must* be small, the benefits, when obtained, are likewise uncertain, but *must* be great. Great as is the value of pure air, it cannot be reduced to dollars and cents any more than health can be reduced to a money value. But we can make some estimate of its importance by considering its influence on property. Besides their profits to the stockholders, we estimate the worth of rail-roads by the enhanced value they give to contiguous property, and this is, to a country, the great and main element of wealth in those improvements. For every dollar they are valuable to their owners, they

are of ten to those who use them. Many millions worth of real estate, both in town and country, would be doubled in value, could they be made secure against the annual and occasional visitations of epidemics engendered by bad air. One tenth of the sums paid by those living in such infected districts, for their annual migrations in search of salubrious air, would bring it to their permanent homes.

For want of a few mouthfuls of pure air, large tracts of the most fertile portions of the globe now lie waste under the viewless poison that broods over their teeming surfaces.

Artificial ventilation would protect, not only against periodical contaminations of the air, but those epidemics which run to and fro the earth on the trackless air, with woe and desolation in their train, might often be defied. Surrounded by the pure air brought from above, on the distant hills, the prudent citizen could, like Noah in his ark, be in security, while consternation reigned without.

Besides the general preservation of health, the use of air in the way above indicated, might be made for other purposes hardly less valuable.

It might be made a most efficient agent in the restoration, as well as preservation of health. In the way directly noticed, a patient could have his room, in summer as well as winter, of any desired temperature, could have a dry or moist atmosphere, and for the cure of many diseases, foreign particles might be added, carrying healing on its wings to diseased humanity. Dr. Cartwright, in the last December number of this Review, tells us how important the vapor of sugar boilers is in some fatal diseases. Instead of sending invalids thousands of miles from their comfortable homes to inhale the saccharine vapor amidst the discomforts of a sugar-house, a few canes, sent even to the coldest latitudes, with a very simple contrivance, added to the ventilating pipes before mentioned, might be made to infuse their healing particles, in graduated quantities, through the most luxurious apartments.

It is manifest, this forced ventilation might be made to minister greatly to the comfort, nay, the luxury of our race. The ventilating pipes should be laid so deep in the earth as to obtain an equable temperature winter and summer. By passing them through proper mediums

the temperature could receive any modification desired. A spiral tube passing through the water at the bottom of a well, with ice added, if necessary, would lower it, or through fire or other warm medium, raise it sufficiently for all purposes of comfort or health. The same fire might warm as well as expel the air from an apartment. This kind of ventilation would be most used in warm latitudes where insects are so annoying and sometimes dangerous to existence. The air-tight sleeping apartments necessary to exclude impure air would cut off these troublesome intruders.

Science would also come in for its share of benefits. It would test the power of various fluids to disinfect the air in its passage through them. By experience we could soon know to what height the air is usually contaminated with impurities, what pestilence walketh in darkness, and the destruction that wasteth at noonday, and many other secrets of the viewless and mysterious air.

There can be no doubt but that more than half the ills which flesh is heir to are born of adulterations of the inodorous air. There is a plan by which this great source of human calamity may be greatly mitigated if not entirely exterminated; and though new, it does not rest on speculation. That air can be, and is moved from one place to another, is as certain as that water can be made to change its position; that it can be moved without being contaminated by the surrounding impure air is equally certain; and, I apprehend, no one will doubt that, whether breathed in a bedroom, on the hills, or two or three hundred feet from the earth, it is equally inoffensive to our lungs, and healthy to our systems.

We form large companies with heavy capitals to supply our cities with gas, to send to the hills for pure water and distribute them through pipe to our houses. With much less expense the more necessary air might be brought to our rooms to be used like water by the turn of a faucet. We bore the solid earth many hundred feet for water of a quality to suit our fancy, and by tubes conduct it uncontaminated through intervening currents to our dwellings. With half the expense, and to half the number of feet, we might tube the empty air to those regions which would furnish a

fluid whose purity is of as much, if not more importance, to our healthy existence, than unadulterated meat and drink. But the tell-tale impurities of food and drink usually give warning to the senses, the taint of corruption or adulteration is made manifest in their use, while the subtle poison may lurk concealed in the invisible and inodorous air, as the unconscious subject regularly, as the pulsations of his heart, inhales disease and death. We no doubt appreciate meat and drink the more because their use gives a sensible enjoyment or pain, while the tasteless air gives no indication of its quality.

Knowing how most discoveries and improvements have surpassed the expectations of the most sanguine; how the propulsion of water-craft by steam power was considered a humbug from the time of Watt to the 7th of August, 1807, when

those who went to deride remained to admire the facility with which the Clermont started on the first steam voyage up the Hudson river; how rail-roads, even after many miles, in the United States, had been put in operation, were pronounced failures by the croaking public, and how the theories of almost all projectors have, in the end, fallen short of practical results, no plausible improvement should be abandoned without a fair trial.

I believe it was Theodore Hook who, when asked, on entering a university, if he was prepared to subscribe the thirty-nine articles, replied, "Forty, if you please." So it seems we would be nearer right to expect more from the improvements of the day than what is required of us. For there is much yet to be known of which our philosophy has not dreamed.

#### ART. III.—THE CITY OF LOUISVILLE, KENTUCKY.

As incidents in the history of individual life form the basis of observational philosophy, so the histories of particular cities become the groundwork of the most accurate general system of mercantile investigation, or, as Saunderson expresses it, of "Merchandry."

The cities of America are distinguished in a remarkable particular, in connection with the light they throw upon the philosophy of trade and commerce, from the cities of Europe, growing out of the fact, that they are, almost without exception, the children of commercial necessity. Cities in Europe have frequently grown up from other causes. The residence of kings, the salubrity of certain localities, and other romantic considerations, enter into the elements, and of course form a part of the history of European towns. But the history of an American city is a legible line in the history of trade. An American city, as a general rule, receives its birth, its continual growth and advancing prosperity from the one and common parent of commerce. To this general observation the city of Louisville is no exception. It became a town because of the falls. The falls in the Ohio river arrested the course of navigation, and made a stoppage there necessary. This stoppage

produced commercial wants—commercial wants, a city.

The city of Louisville, in the State of Kentucky, is situated on the Ohio River, opposite the falls of the river, on a plain well suited to the purpose, about seventy feet above the level of the river, lon. 85° 30' west; lat. 38° 3' north. The soil is sandy, extremely fertile, and resting upon a substratum of rich clay. It is laid out with considerable regularity, the principal streets running parallel with the river, and being intersected by others at right angles. It has a present population of 51,726:—

In the year 1800 the population was...	800
" 1820.....	4,000
" 1840.....	21,000
" 1850, over .....	50,000

These are striking results.

The first owners of the lands at the falls were John Campbell and John Conally. They were patented to them probably as bounty lands. But the first settlement having anything like a permanent character was made in 1778, by Col. G. R. Clark, a name of some distinction in the early history of Kentucky.

Clark's instructions came from the celebrated Patrick Henry, the Gov. of Virginia, and are dated Virginia—Sot. In council, Williamsburg, Jan. 22, 1778.



A few families were located by him upon Corn Island, opposite Louisville. Some conception of the nature of the danger and singular hardihood of the early settlers of this state may be derived from the fact, that these few families were removed into the heart of an Indian territory, several hundred miles from the nearest point of protection from their countrymen, and when the intervening country was filled with a savage foe.

There is probably no country in the world where the lovers of local or individual adventure—the contests of man with his savage brother in the fierce excitement of the individual death struggle, with all its thrilling but minute particulars, can be gratified to the same extent, both in the number and excitement of the incidents, as in the State of Kentucky. The early settlement of the country was characterized by conflicts between individual members of the two distinct races, or by small parties of each, rather than by any one general decisive engagement by which wars are usually terminated. But the Kentucky war was a war of extermination, more properly carried on by the individual members of the two races, than by any decisive settlement of subsisting disagreements in a general fight. It was a war ever beginning, and never ending. In no country in the world probably have human beings shot down human beings with a more evident gusto and more complete absence of remorseful visitings of conscience.

The following passages from an enactment of the General Assembly of Virginia, passed in May, 1780, for "establishing the town of Louisville at the falls of Ohio," may not be without interest.

"Whereas sundry inhabitants of the county of Kentucky have, at a great expense and hazard, settled themselves upon certain lands at the falls of Ohio, said to be the property (thus reads the act) of John Conally, and have laid off a considerable part thereof into half-acre lots for a town, and having settled thereon, have preferred petitions to this general assembly to establish the said town. *Be it therefore enacted*, that one thousand acres of land, being the forfeited property of said John Conally, adjoining to the lands of John Campbell and Richard Taylor, be and the same is hereby vested in (sundry trustees) to be by them, or any four of them, laid off into lots of half an

acre each, with convenient streets, and public lots, which shall be, and the same is hereby established a town by the name of Louisville." Thus, we perceive, the city of Louisville in the county of Kentucky became a town by authority of the General Assembly of the State of Virginia. The statute proceeds further to enact "that after the said lands shall be laid off into lots and streets, the said trustees, or any four of them, shall proceed to sell the said lots, or so many of them as they shall judge expedient, at public auction, for the best price that can be had, the time and place of sale being advertised two months at the court-house of adjacent counties; the purchasers respectively to hold their said lots subject to the condition of building on each a dwelling-house, sixteen feet by twenty at least, with a brick or stone chimney, to be finished within two years from the day of sale." The statute proceeded to grant the amount of sale of lots over thirty dollars per acre to purposes of public improvement in the town, and to vest in the trustees the judicial power "to settle and determine all disputes concerning the bounds of the said lots; to settle such rules and orders for the regular building thereon as to them shall seem best and most convenient."

An important feature of the early geography of Louisville, was the many ponds of standing water, that so materially contributed to give the place the cognomen of the grave-yard. The first and most conspicuous, commencing at the present corner of Market-street, ran to Sixteenth-street. The next in size was known as Grayson's Pond, beginning on Centre-street, and running towards Seventh-street. The fish within this pond, its clear water, its edges covered with firm grassy turf, the many religious services of baptism performed in it, and the many promenades around it, evening and morning, by the élite of the city, made it quite a favorite; but it has given way in the progress of the city's wealth, and is now obliterated. Besides these, there were others of less magnitude scattered over the face of the country, that would well entitle the city, in the language of Mr. Cassedy, to be called an "archipelago, a sea full of little islands." These "have all been carefully drained, or filled up, and now the city will stand a favorable comparison in this regard, so closely connected

with health, with any city in the world.

In proof of which, the following table, carefully made, will be full evidence.

In Louisville the deaths are.....	1	to	50
" Philadelphia, " " .....	1	"	36
" New-York " " .....	1	"	37
" Boston " " .....	1	"	35
" Cincinnati " " .....	1	"	35
" Naples " " .....	1	"	35
" Paris " " .....	1	"	33
" London " " .....	1	"	39
" Glasgow " " .....	1	"	44

In May, 1780, the General Assembly of Virginia divided the county of Kentucky into three counties respectively, the counties of Fayette, Lincoln, and Jefferson. In the latter county Louisville was situated. In the month of July, 1790, the convention of Kentucky met, and determined to accede to the offers of Virginia, with respect to the emancipation of the counties of Kentucky and their elevation to the position of an independent state. On the 14th of February, 1791, the act of Independence was passed by Congress. The new constitution for the new state was prepared in 1792. About this time terminated the hostilities of the Indians. The assessment of the town in 1809 was about \$991.

In 1799, Louisville was declared by act of Congress to be a port of entry. This put an end to much smuggling, the city of New-Orleans then being in a foreign country.

Under the protection of the legislature of Kentucky, the town of Louisville was placed upon much more efficient police regulations than formerly, and many wise and salutary enactments were passed for the improvement of the town, the building public edifices, and a new survey and plot of the town were made out by legislative authority.

The town of Shippingport at one time threatened to rival Louisville in point of commercial importance. But its geographical position and the start which Louisville had already taken, were of themselves sufficient to defeat the very strenuous efforts that were made by private individuals, at great sacrifices, to build up this town. It is one of the many proofs that there is an under current regulating the business of city-making, that private wealth and enterprise cannot always govern or control.

The very interesting sketches of Louisville, published by Dr. McMurtrie, in 1819, gives us the following character-

istic account of this Bois de Boulogne of Louisville :—

"This important place," says he, with that directness of detail so peculiar to the worthy Doctor, "is situated two miles below Louisville, immediately at the foot of the rapids, and is built upon the beautiful plain or bottom which commences at the mouth of Beargrass Creek, through which, under the brow of the second bank, the contemplated canal will in all probability be cut. The town originally consisted of forty-five acres, but it has since received considerable additions. The lots are 75 by 144 feet, the average price of which (1819) is from forty to fifty dollars per foot, according to the advantages of its situation. The streets are all laid out at right angles; those that run parallel to the river, or nearly so, are eight in number, and vary from 30 to 90 feet in width. These are all intersected by 12-foot alleys running parallel to them, and by fifteen cross-streets at right angles, each sixty feet wide. The population of Shippingport may be estimated at 600 souls, including strangers." It has greatly faded from its original promise, and is now little more than the faubourg of the city of Louisville. The canal spoken of by Dr. McMurtrie has been since completed.

The Louisville and Portland canal is about two miles in extent. The fall to be overcome is computed to be about twenty-four feet, produced by masses of lime-rock, through which the entire bed of the canal is excavated, a part of it to the depth of 12 feet overlaid with earth. The following description of this work, begun in 1826, and prepared for navigation in 1830, and costing \$750,000, is taken from the *Encyclopedia Americana*—article, Louisville. It corresponds also precisely with a description given by Mr. Ben Casseday :—

"There is one guard and three lift locks combined, all of which have their foundation on the rock. There are two bridges, one of stone, 240 feet long, with an elevation of 68 feet to the top of the parapet wall, and three arches, the centre one of which is semi-elliptical, with a transverse diameter of 66, and a semi-conjugate diameter of 22 feet; the two side arches are segments of 40 feet span, the other is a pivot bridge, built over the head of the guard lock, and is of wood, 100 feet long, with a span of 52 feet, intended to open in time of high water as

boats are passing through the canal. The guard lock is 190 feet long in the clear, with semi-circular heads of 26 feet in diameter, is 50 feet wide, and 42 feet high. The solid contents of this lock are equal to those of 15 common locks, such as are built on the Ohio and New-York canals. The lift locks are of the same width with the guard lock, 20 feet high and 183 feet long in the clear. The entire length of the walls, from the head of the guard lock, to the end of the outlet lock, is 921 feet. There are three culverts to drain off the water from the adjacent lands, the mason-work of which, when added to the locks and bridge, gives the whole amount of mason-work 41,989 perches, equal to about 30 common canal locks. The cross section of the canal is 200 feet at the top of the banks, 50 feet at the bottom, and 42 feet high, having a capacity equal to that of 25 common canals.

"The Louisville and Portland canal was completed and put in partial operation on the 1st of January, 1831, from which time up to June 1st of the same year, 505 boats of different descriptions passed its locks. A bank of mud at its mouth, which could not be removed last winter, from the too sudden rise of the water, will be removed at the ensuing period of low water, when the canal can be navigated at all times by all such vessels as navigate the Ohio. The Ohio, when the water is lowest, is not more than two feet deep in many places above and below the falls, and rises 36 feet perpendicular above the falls, opposite to the city, and 60 feet perpendicular rises have been known at the foot of the falls. An appropriation of \$150,000 by the United States was made last winter (1830), by which the low places in the river are to be improved so as to give four feet of water, in low water, from its mouth to Pittsburgh.

"Louisville has been allowed by travelers and strangers," this same account continues, "to be one of the greatest thoroughfares in the Union. At least 50,000 passengers arrive here annually from below, and it is reasonable to conclude half that number pass through it descending. Great bodies of emigrants from the east and north pass through it, and it is not uncommon in the autumn to see the streets filled for days together with continued processions of *movers*, as they are called, going to the Great West."

Recurring again to the canal, it may be interesting to the curious to know that in excavating it there were found bodies of trees in a state of partial decay, many human skeletons in an astonishing condition of preservation, many implements of stone, and indeed some of wood, some of iron, are indicative of some advancement in the mechanic arts—some trees of cedar, not found anywhere in that region, together with fire-places and charred wood, or carbon. In a particular locality there were found many hundreds of flint arrow-heads, constructed by the Indians for purposes of hunting or defence.

Mr. Mann Butler informs us that many mineral springs, some of them possessing the invaluable ingredient of iron so much prized in cases of debility of the digestive apparatus, presented themselves in more places than one, during the excavation.—13,776 steamboats and 4,700 flats and keels had passed through the canal in 1843, the tolls of which amounted to \$1,227,625 50.

Louisville became a city by an act of the Kentucky Legislature, passed 13th Feb., 1828.

Mr. Casseday informs us that "a writer in the *Focus* for January 20, 1829, gives an idea of the commerce of Louisville in regard to certain leading articles at this period." He says, that "from the 1st January, 1828, to 1st January, 1829, there were received and sold in this place 4,144 hogsheads of sugar and 8,607 bags and barrels of coffee, amounting in value to \$584,681. He also fixes the inspections of tobacco in Louisville at 2,050 hhds. for 1826, 4,354 hhds. for 1827, and 4,075 hhds. for 1828. The average price of these was—for 1826, \$2 67, for 1827, \$2 59, and for 1828, \$1 98½. The whole value of these for the three years was \$468,672 88. 1,140 of these were shipped to Pittsburgh, 3,048 to New-Orleans, 320 manufactured here, and 458 were stemmed.

A writer in the *Kentucky Reporter* also adds to this information the following statement: "The store-rooms of the principal wholesale merchants are larger and better adapted to business purposes than any to be found in the commercial cities of the East. Not a few of them are from 100 to 130 feet in depth by 30 wide, and from three to four stories high, and furnished with fire-proof vaults for the preservation of books

and papers in case of fire. The wholesale business has increased very rapidly of late, perhaps doubled in the course of two years. The original dimensions of the canal were upon a scale entirely too small to admit of the passage of the larger class of steamers now built and being built for the New-Orleans trade. Hence the project of a rail-road from the upper portion of the falls to the termination, to be erected upon the Indiana side of the river, where the course will be level, has been for some time in serious contemplation. The object of this rail-road is to transport the steamers and other vessels too large to navigate the river. It is to be effected by means of a stationary engine about midway, from which pulleys are to be fastened upon the boats, and in this way they are to be carried from the water above, along the line of the road, and laid upon rock, down to the water below. We may now expect this work to be completed within a short time, as all the stock has been taken and is greatly above par.

From the directory published by Mr. Otis, in 1832, we obtain the following particulars, interesting to the general merchant:

IMPORTS FROM DEC. 1, 1831, TO AUGUST 4, 1832.

Bale Rope .....	coils.....	26,830
Bagging .....	pieces.....	33,411
China, &c.....	pkgs.....	1,170
Coffee.....	bags.....	18,269
Cotton.....	bales.....	4,913
Mackerel.....	bbis.....	12,037
Salt.....	".....	16,729
Salt (Turk's Island).....	bags.....	18,146
Tea.....	lbs.....	63,500
Flour.....	bbis.....	48,470
Hides.....	".....	19,121
Iron.....	tons.....	631
Lead.....	".....	231
Molasses.....	bbis.....	6,309
Nails.....	kegs.....	10,395
Sugar (N. O.).....	hhds.....	7,717
" (Loaf).....	bbis.....	3,118
Tinplate.....	boxes.....	3,108

14,627 barrels of whiskey were inspected during this time.

One steam factory (woolen) employs 30 hands, and consumes 25,000 pounds of wool per annum.

One cotton factory employs 80 hands, and consumes 500 bales annually, and works 1,056 spindles.

Two potteries. One grist mill (steam). Two foundries employing 155 hands and consuming 1,200 tons of iron per annum. Sixteen brick yards. One steam planing mill, with two machines and two circular saws, planes, tongues, grooves,

&c., about 2,000 feet of plank to each machine per day. Three breweries. Two white-lead factories consume 600 tons lead annually. Four rope walks, which work up 600 tons of hemp annually."

Every city has, at some time or other, its practical jokes. The following one is very amusingly narrated by Mr. Casseday, by whom a work of considerable merit, entitled the "History of Louisville," has been written, and from which we have drawn, quite largely, the materials of this article. Mr. Casseday does not think that the removal of the deposits from the banks, where they had been used as banking capital, very materially affected the happiness or the love of fun in the citizens, although the city fathers represented, in a grave memorial to the government, that "all is gloom and despondence, all uncertainty and suspense, all apprehension and foreboding. Prices here have fallen beyond any former example. Flour has sunk from \$4 to \$3 or even \$2 50 per barrel. Hemp, pork, and every commodity has fallen in many instances 50 per cent."

The incident alluded to by Mr. Casseday, as his proof that this derangement in the monetary operations of commerce did not "throw a very deep or settled gloom over the community," "was the sudden appearance in the streets of the city of a very singular procession, since known as the *comical guards*. They were intended as a burlesque of the militia drills, then of biennial occurrence here. The procession was headed by an enormous man, rivaling Daniel Lambert in his superabundance of flesh, mounted on an equally overgrown ox, on whose hide was painted the following descriptive motto: 'The bull-works of our country.' This heroic captain also wore a sword of mighty proportions, on whose trenchant blade was written in letters of scarlet the savage inscription: 'Blood or —.' This leader was followed by a band of equally singular characters, long men on short ponies, little boys on enormous bony Rozinantes, picked up from the commons; men inclosed in hogsheads with only head, feet and arms visible; men encased, even to helmet and visor, in wicker-work armor, and a thousand other knights of fanciful costume, and all marching with heroic steps to the martial clangor of tin pans, the braying of milk-horns, the



shrill sound of whistles, the piping of cat-calls, and the ceaseless din of penny trumpets and cornstalk fiddles. The procession halted in its progress through the streets in front of the residences of the officers of the militia, and after saluting them with a flourish of music, made them a speech, and cheered them with a chorus of groans." The following is the table of churches :

	Congregations.	Usual attendances.	Value of property.
Baptist .....	5.	2,200	\$80,000
Episcopal .....	3.	1,435	76,000
Methodist .....	17.	5,900	109,000
Presbyterian .....	5.	2,225	128,000
German Evangelical .....	4.	1,200	21,700
" Lutheran .....	1.	100	—
" Reformed .....	1.	200	2,250
Disciples .....	2.	520	18,000
Unitarians .....	1.	240	1,200
Universalists .....	1.	200	8,000
Roman Catholic .....	4.	5,000	125,000
Jews .....	2.	400	11,000
Total .....	46.	19,810	\$590,900

The following statistical information we extract from the work of Mr. Casseday, above alluded to: Louisville contains twenty-five exclusively wholesale dry-goods houses, whose sales are made only to dealers, and whose market reaches from Northern Louisiana to Northern Kentucky, and embraces a large part of the states of Kentucky, Indiana, Tennessee, Alabama, Illinois, Mississippi, and Arkansas. The aggregate amount of annual sales by these houses is \$5,853,000, or an average of \$234,000 to each house. The sales of three of the largest of these houses amount, in the aggregate, to \$1,789,000. Neither this statement, nor those which follow, include any auction houses.

In boots and shoes the sales of the eight houses, of the above description, reach \$1,184,000, or \$148,000 to each house. The sales of the three largest houses in this business reach \$630,000.

The aggregate amount of sales of eight houses in drugs, &c., is \$1,123,000, or \$140,375 to each house, and the sales of the three largest houses amount to \$753,000.

The sales of hardware by nine houses amount annually to \$590,000, being an average of \$65,555 to each house.

The sales of saddlery reach \$980,000, of which nearly one-half are of domestic manufacture.

The sales of hats and caps, necessarily including sales at retail, amount to \$683,000.

The sales of queensware, less reliably taken, reach \$265,000.

There are thirty-nine wholesale grocery houses, whose aggregate sales reach \$10,623,400, which gives an average of \$272,400 each. A brief statement of some of the principal annual imports in the grocery line will, perhaps, give a better idea of this business. The figures refer to the year 1850:

Louisiana sugar .....	hhds.	15,615
Refined .....	p'kgs.	10,100
Molasses .....	bbis.	17,500
Coffee .....	bags.	42,500
Rice .....	pieces.	1,275
Cotton yarns .....	bags.	17,925
Cheese .....	boxes.	25,250
Flour .....	bbis.	80,650
Bagging .....	pieces.	70,160
Rope .....	coils.	65,350
Salt (Kanawha) .....	bbis.	110,250
" (Turk's Island) .....	bags.	50,525

The following recapitulatory table will enable the reader to see at a glance all that has just been stated:

Description of business.	No. of houses.	Aggregate annual sales.	Average sales of each house.
Groceries .....	39.	\$10,623,400	\$272,400
Dry-Goods .....	25.	5,853,000	234,000
Boots and Shoes ..	8.	1,184,000	148,000
Drugs .....	8.	1,123,000	140,375
Hardware .....	9.	590,000	65,555
Queensware .....	6.	265,000	44,166
Hats, Furs, &c. ....	8.	683,000	85,375
Total .....	103.	\$20,321,400	\$197,295

As a tobacco market, Louisville has attracted very much of the public attention. In respect to this article, it has some very striking advantages—convenience of access, coupled with the fact that, in the transportation of this article, purchasers at the North and East are not under the necessity of subjecting it to the trial of a sea voyage. Holders of tobacco are now satisfied that the sale of the article, at full prices, can be effected in this city without the slightest uncertainty or difficulty. Speculators, upon the other hand, and the regular trader, may confidently expect to find here a good assortment. The following table will show the steady increase in the article of tobacco since the year 1839.

There were received here in 1839 .....	1,295	hhds.
" .....	1842	5,131
" .....	1846	9,700
" .....	1851	11,300
" .....	1852	16,176

It is quite a common thing to see traders from portions of Virginia itself, from Western New-York, Northern Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and Western Pennsylvania, and occasionally from other states. The eye of the philosophical merchant.

cannot but be directed to the wonderful changes that have been, and the greater that will yet be effected, in virtue of artificial channels of intercommunication. Hitherto the great lines of water communication have given character to the mercantile geography, or commercial aspect of a country. But now they are giving place to a more potent element of commerce in railroads and canals. It now becomes a question whether the tobacco and cotton planter, who resides in North Mississippi, in certain parts of Tennessee and Alabama, cannot put his hoghead of tobacco of the one, and his bale of cotton of the other, into the cities of the East, in less time and at a less cost by means of the now uninterrupted communication with those cities. The lake route, during the summer months, is uninterrupted. The Jefferson Railroad begins to attract attention. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad being completed to Wheeling, produce of every kind can be carried to Philadelphia and New-York. The completion of this road will be followed by the establishment, as necessary sequences, of a regular line of steam packets from Louisville to Nashville, and to Memphis, and to Wheeling. Louisville is also a place of increasing attraction to the law and medical student. The University of Louisville can stand a respectable comparison with the very best in the country. It is now in high repute and in successful operation. There are names connected with the institution that have a reputation beyond the limits of the state.

"A short time ago," says the Louisville Courier of the 24th September, "we published a statement as prepared by Thomas S. Page, Esq., Auditor of the State of Kentucky, of the number of hogs six months old on the first day of January, 1852, in this state. The list was incomplete, as eight counties had not sent in their assessments. We now subjoin the full returns from every county in the state except Trimble :

Last Report .....	1,011,961
Madison county .....	37,402
Estill county .....	5,918
Mason county .....	11,294
Davies county .....	21,789
Union county .....	15,643
Woodford county .....	8,826
Jefferson county (Louisville) .....	20,262

The reader, curious with respect to the health of Louisville, may receive satisfactory information from the following

extract from the Report of the Committee of Public Health of the Louisville Medical Society: "Since the year 1822 and 1823," says this report, "the endemic fevers of summer and autumn have become gradually less frequent; until within the last five or six years, they have almost ceased to prevail, and those months now are as free from disease, as those of any part of the year. Typhoid fever is a rare affection here, and a majority of the cases seen, occur in persons recently from the country. Some physicians residing in the interior of this state, see more of the disease than comes under the joint observation of all the practitioners of the city, if we exclude those treated in the hospital. Tubercular disease, particularly pulmonary consumption, is not so much seen as in the interior of Kentucky. Our exemption from pulmonary consumption is remarkable, and it would be a matter of much interest, if a registration could be made of all the deaths from it, so that we could compare them with those of other places. For the truth of the remark as to the extent and frequency of the diseases enumerated, we rely solely upon what we have observed ourselves, and upon what we have verbally gathered from our professional friends. This exemption of Louisville from disease, can be accounted for in no other way than from its natural situation, and from what has been done in grading, in building, and in laying off the streets.

"Louisville is situated on an open plain, where the wind has access from every direction; upon a sandy soil, which readily absorbs the water that falls upon it; susceptible of adequate drainings; supplied bountifully with pure limestone water, which is filtered through a depth of thirty or forty feet of sand; its streets are wide and laid off at right angles: north and south, east and west,—giving the freest ventilation, and the buildings compact, comfortable, and generally so constructed as to be dry and to admit freely the fresh air. It is situated upon the border of the beautiful Ohio, and environed by one of the richest agricultural districts in the world, supplying it with abundance of food and all the comforts and luxuries of life. It must, under the guidance of science and wise legislation, become, if it is not

already, one of the healthiest cities in the world. Its proximity to the rapids of the Ohio may add to its salubrity; and it is certain that the evening breezes wafted over them, produce an exhilarating effect beyond what is derived from the perpetual music of a roar of waters."

Louisville has the reputation of having been the residence of one of the sweetest poets of America. Some of the poems of Amelia, the child of song, are written with unusual excellence,

and are extremely creditable to her as a woman, as well as an evidence of high order of genius. With a little more experience, with a little more of the masculine of the mind—if we may say so—with a little deeper insight into the springs of human passion, and a higher range of philosophical feeling, she would have taken a permanent rank among those names that time enrolls for perpetuity. But her song, so full of melody, is now still in the grave.

G.

[For other statistical information upon Louisville see previous volumes of Review, condensed into "Industrial Resources," articles, "Kentucky," "Louisville," &c. See also Review of January, 1853, for an article upon the rates of freight and other expenses of shipment from Louisville by the rail-road, &c., to the North, and also by way of New-Orleans, in the same direction.]—Ed.

#### ART. IV.—PROGRESS OF THE REPUBLIC—THE CENSUS OF EIGHTEEN HUNDRED AND FIFTY.

(Continued from our last No.)

**CRIME.**—The statistics of crime form a subject of our investigation. From the returns it appears that the whole number of persons convicted of crime in the United States, for the year ending the first day of June, 1850, was about 27,000. Of these 13,000 were native, and 14,000 foreign born. The whole number in prison on the first day of June was about 6,700, of whom 4,300 were native, and 2,460 foreign. It will be borne in mind that the native prisoners include colored convicts, the number of whom it is impossible to state, as time has not sufficed to admit of the more particular separation into classes, other than native and foreign. Our criminal statistics, when fully understood, will present many subjects for reflection, and open a wide and interesting field for the study of the Christian, moralist, and statesman.

**REAL AND PERSONAL ESTATE.**—Appended to our report will be found a table of the valuation of real and personal estate owned by individuals in each of the United States. This table, which fixes the wealth of our citizens at more than 7,133,000 of dollars, is made up from the official returns of property for the purposes of taxation. Where the assessment has been made on a sum less than the intrinsic worth, the assistant marshals were instructed to add the necessary per centage to bring it up to its true value. We are of opinion that the

entire table falls short of the reality at least 20 per cent. For the purposes of taxation, especially on personal property, the full amount in value is not generally given in, and in rural districts, especially, all kinds of property are assessed at much less than their worth. The table does not represent stocks or bonds owned by the separate states, or by the general government. This return will be narrowly scrutinized, and will furnish matter for many a discussion on political economy. The value of slaves is included.

The following is the valuation of real and personal estate of the inhabitants of the United States for the year ending June 1, 1850:—

States.	Assessed value.	True or estimated value.
Maine.....	\$96,765,868	\$122,777,571
New-Hampshire.....	92,177,959	103,652,835
Vermont.....	71,671,651	92,205,049
Massachusetts.....	546,003,057	573,342,286
Rhode Island.....	77,758,974	80,508,794
Connecticut.....	119,088,672	135,707,980
New-York.....	715,369,028	1,080,300,216
New-Jersey*.....	190,000,000	200,000,000
Pennsylvania.....	497,039,649	722,486,130
Delaware.....	17,442,640	18,652,053
Maryland.....	208,563,566	219,217,364
District of Columbia..	14,018,874	14,018,874
Virginia.....	381,376,660	430,701,682
North Carolina.....	212,071,413	226,800,472
South Carolina.....	283,867,709	285,237,698
Georgia.....	335,116,225	335,493,714
Florida.....	22,784,837	22,842,270
Alabama.....	219,476,180	228,304,332
Mississippi.....	308,423,167	228,951,130

\* In New-Jersey, as the real estate only was returned, the above is partly estimated.

States.	Assessed value.	True or estimated value.
Louisiana.....	\$220,163,172	\$233,908,764
Texas.....	51,027,456	52,740,473
Arkansas.....	36,428,675	39,841,025
Tennessee.....	189,437,623	201,346,686
Kentucky.....	391,387,554	391,638,456
Ohio.....	435,872,632	391,628,456
Michigan.....	30,877,223	50,757,255
Indiana.....	132,870,399	202,650,264
Illinois.....	114,782,645	156,595,006
Missouri.....	98,595,463	137,247,707
Iowa.....	21,690,649	23,714,688
Wisconsin.....	26,715,525	42,066,595
California.....	22,123,173	22,161,872
	<b>\$5,998,983,281</b>	<b>\$7,122,145,697</b>
<b>Territories.</b>		
Minnesota (not returned in full).....		
New-Mexico.....	5,174,471	5,174,471
Oregon.....	5,063,474	5,063,474
Utah.....	986,083	986,083
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>\$6,010,267,309</b>	<b>\$7,133,369,725</b>

**CHURCHES.**—The assistant marshals were required to give an account of churches, including halls and chapels, if

† Only thirteen counties in California are returned.

statedly used as places of public worship, belonging to all religious denominations. By the returns made, it appears there are 36,011 churches in the several states, and 210 in the District of Columbia and the Territories. The churches in California and the Territories are not fully returned, but the religious denominations in those places are not supposed to have possessed numerous or large buildings. The halls or school-houses which are used in many of the thinly settled portions of the country, and in cities by societies which are unable to build houses of worship for their own use, are not included. By the "aggregate accommodations" in the table, is meant the total number of seats for individuals in the churches. Under the "value of church property" is included the value of each of the churches and property owned by the different religious societies.

States.	No. of Churches.	Ratio of Churches to population.	Aggregate accommodations of Churches.	Average accommodations in each state.	Total value of Church property.	Av'ge val. in each state.
Maine.....	851	685	304,447	358	\$1,712,152	\$2,012
New-Hampshire.....	602	528	233,892	389	1,401,586	2,327
Vermont.....	564	556	226,444	401	1,213,126	2,151
Massachusetts.....	1,430	695	662,908	478	10,305,284	7,137
Rhode Island.....	221	667	98,736	447	1,252,900	5,669
Connecticut.....	719	515	305,249	425	3,354,894	4,944
New-York.....	4,084	738	1,896,229	464	21,132,737	5,174
New-Jersey.....	807	606	344,933	427	3,540,436	4,387
Pennsylvania.....	3,509	658	1,366,413	446	11,551,885	3,297
Delaware.....	180	508	55,741	310	340,345	1,891
Maryland.....	909	641	390,265	429	3,947,884	4,343
Virginia.....	2,336	608	834,691	357	2,849,176	1,220
North Carolina.....	1,678	517	558,204	333	889,393	530
South Carolina.....	1,163	574	453,920	391	2,140,346	1,902
Georgia.....	1,723	525	612,892	356	1,869,159	737
Florida.....	152	507	41,170	271	165,490	1,088
Alabama.....	1,235	624	388,605	315	1,132,076	836
Mississippi.....	910	666	275,979	262	754,512	829
Louisiana.....	278	1,862	104,080	374	1,782,470	6,412
Texas.....	164	1,296	54,495	332	200,530	1,223
Arkansas.....	185	1,133	39,930	216	89,315	483
Tennessee.....	1,939	517	606,695	313	1,208,876	623
Kentucky.....	1,818	540	672,033	370	2,260,098	1,943
Ohio.....	3,890	509	1,447,632	372	5,765,149	1,325
Michigan.....	362	1,098	118,892	328	723,200	1,998
Indiana.....	1,947	507	680,330	354	1,512,485	777
Illinois.....	1,167	720	479,078	411	1,476,335	1,265
Missouri.....	773	892	241,139	312	1,558,590	2,016
Iowa.....	148	1,298	37,759	255	177,400	1,199
Wisconsin.....	244	1,250	75,453	322	350,600	1,437
California.....	23	7,173	9,600	417	228,300	1,123
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>36,011</b>	<b>640</b>	<b>13,849,598</b>	<b>384</b>	<b>\$86,416,639</b>	<b>\$2,400</b>

Denominations.	No. of Churches.	Aggregate accommodations.	Average accommodations.	Total value of Church property.	Av'ge val. of property.
Baptist.....	8,791	3,130,878	356	\$10,931,322	\$1,244
Christian.....	812	296,030	365	845,810	1,041
Congregational.....	1,674	795,177	475	7,073,962	4,763
Dutch Reformed.....	324	181,986	561	4,696,630	12,644
Episcopal.....	1,422	625,213	440	11,261,970	7,919
Free.....	711	108,605	309	252,255	698
Friends.....	364	282,823	396	1,700,897	2,395
German Reformed.....	327	156,632	479	965,880	2,953
Jewish.....	31	16,573	534	371,600	11,987
Lutheran.....	1,203	531,100	441	2,867,888	2,363
Mennonite.....	110	29,900	272	94,245	856



Denominations.	No. of Churches.	Aggregate accommodations.	Average accommodations.	Total value of Church property.	Average value of property.
Methodist.....	12,467	4,909,333	337	14,636,671	1,174
Moravian.....	331	112,185	338	443,347	1,339
Presbyterian.....	4,584	2,040,316	445	14,369,889	3,135
Roman Catholic.....	1,112	620,950	558	8,973,838	8,069
Swedenborgian.....	15	5,070	338	108,100	7,206
Tunker.....	52	25,075	474	46,025	885
Union.....	619	213,552	345	600,065	1,114
Unitarian.....	243	136,367	565	3,268,122	13,449
Universalist.....	494	205,462	415	1,767,015	3,576
Minor Sects.....	335	115,347	354	741,080	2,283
Total.....	36,011	13,840,896	384	\$66,416,639	\$2,400

By the annexed tables it will be seen that the total value of church property in the United States, is \$66,416,639, of which one half is owned in New-York, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania. In the tables we specify the principal out of more than one hundred denominations returned, although between some of these there are but slight shades of difference in sentiment, or form of church government. About thirty are returned as "African," thirty as "Independent," and twenty as "Protestant," without distinguishing them more particularly. These and all the churches not properly classed under the heads given, are included in "Minor Sects." All the varieties of Baptists, Methodists and Presbyterians are included under their general heads, except where distinctly specified.

There is one church for every 557 free inhabitants, or for every 646 of the entire population.

The average number the churches will accommodate is 384, and the average value is \$2,400.

Churches are more numerous in proportion to the population, in Indiana, Florida, Delaware and Ohio, and less numerous in California, Louisiana and Iowa.

Those in Massachusetts are the largest, and have the greatest average value.

The preceding tables present interesting facts respecting the relative value and size of the churches, in the several states, and those of different denominations. They also show the number of churches to the total population.

AGRICULTURE.—As agriculture is a branch of industry coeval with the history of mankind, its connection with the general welfare of the nation so intimate, its reciprocal bearing on manufactures so immediate, both admitted to form the base of prosperity and power of the people—as it is a branch of science, the prosperity of which, in all its resources, affects individuals of every order, and without which there could be no com-

merce, it has seemed proper, while exhibiting the actual condition of agricultural industry in the middle of the century, to present in connection therewith some history of the character, introduction and increase of the most important of the agricultural productions of our country, and of their former and present commercial consequence to ourselves and other governments. Realizing that all human life is dependent upon it, and that the earth would be nearly depopulated by a year's failure, nearly all the nations of the earth, from the remotest period, have maintained institutions preëminently calculated for the promotion of agriculture, honoring husbandry, and encouraging the advancement of the science.

Agriculture is now fostered by the nations of the continent of Europe; it is publicly taught in institutions designed for this special purpose, and in many of their colleges; and the result has been that, as formerly, while the ancients encouraged agriculture, and it received the attention of orators, and its praises and precepts were recited by the bards and sung by the poets, and monarchs participated in its labors, learning and agriculture went hand in hand, so that the greatest geniuses of the age identified themselves with its promotion; so in these later years, where properly fostered and encouraged, it has received the attention of some of the greatest intellects and scholars who have striven to throw most light upon this "grand art of rendering mankind happy, wealthy and powerful."

In view of what has been done by other nations, of the little which has been accomplished by the official documents of our country, and in view of the fact that we possess no regularly organized office for the dissemination of agricultural information, although such an establishment was urged by Washington, and many of his successors in office to

the present time, it is hoped that the devotion to this subject of more space than needed for a mere table of figures representing our products of agriculture will be tolerated, and that you will approve the short history attempted for each of our great productions of agriculture, well calculated as such an account will be to make our people better acquainted with the importance of their productions

reciprocally, and lead to a more general and perfect sympathy. The subject is one worthy a more able pen, and I would shrink from the task, conscious of inability to do justice to the subject, did I not suppose that this feeble effort may present points of practical value, for embellishment by those better adapted for the duty.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF ACRES OF IMPROVED AND UNIMPROVED LAND, IN FARMS, CASH VALUE THEREOF, AND AVERAGE CASH VALUE PER ACRE IN EACH STATE, ETC.:

States.	Acres of improved land.	Acres of unimproved land in farms.	Total.	Cash value of land, improved and unimproved.
Maine	2,039,596	2,515,797	4,555,393	\$54,861,748
New-Hampshire	2,351,488	1,140,926	3,492,414	55,345,967
Vermont	9,901,409	1,524,413	4,125,823	63,367,227
Massachusetts	2,133,436	1,222,576	3,356,012	109,076,347
Rhode Island	356,487	197,451	553,938	17,070,869
Connecticut	1,768,178	615,701	2,383,879	73,730,422
New-York	12,408,968	6,740,120	19,149,088	534,546,642
New-Jersey	1,767,991	964,955	2,732,946	126,337,511
Pennsylvania	5,628,610	6,294,728	14,923,347	407,876,099
Delaware	580,862	375,358	956,144	18,880,031
Maryland	2,787,903	1,836,445	4,624,348	87,178,545
District of Columbia	16,267	1,187	27,454	1,730,400
Virginia	10,360,135	15,792,176	26,152,311	216,401,441
North Carolina	5,453,977	15,543,010	20,996,987	67,691,766
South Carolina	4,072,651	12,145,049	16,217,700	82,431,694
Georgia	6,378,479	16,442,900	22,821,379	95,758,445
Florida	349,049	1,236,240	1,585,289	6,323,109
Alabama	4,423,614	7,702,007	12,127,621	64,323,223
Mississippi	3,444,358	7,046,061	10,490,419	54,736,634
Louisiana	1,590,025	3,039,018	5,529,043	75,814,398
Texas	639,107	14,454,669	15,093,776	16,398,747
Arkansas	781,531	1,516,684	2,298,215	15,325,945
Tennessee	5,175,173	13,808,840	18,984,023	97,851,312
Kentucky	11,368,370	10,972,478	22,340,748	154,330,262
Ohio	9,851,493	8,146,000	17,997,493	358,758,603
Michigan	1,929,110	2,454,780	4,383,890	51,879,446
Indiana	5,046,543	7,746,879	12,793,422	136,385,173
Illinois	5,039,545	6,997,867	12,037,412	96,133,290
Missouri	2,938,425	6,794,245	9,732,670	63,225,543
Iowa	824,682	1,911,382	2,736,064	16,657,567
Wisconsin	1,045,499	1,931,150	2,976,658	38,528,563
California	62,324	3,831,571	3,893,895	3,874,041
Minnesota Territory	5,035	22,846	28,881	161,948
Oregon	132,857	299,951	432,808	2,849,170
Utah	16,333	30,516	46,849	311,799
New-Mexico	166,901	124,370	290,271	1,653,032
Aggregate	118,457,622	184,621,348	303,078,970	\$3,270,733,093

States.	Av'ge cash value per acre.	States.	Av'ge cash value per acre.
Maine	\$12 04	Louisiana	\$13 71
New-Hampshire	16 28	Texas	1 09
Vermont	15 36	Arkansas	5 88
Massachusetts	32 50	Tennessee	5 16
Rhode Island	30 82	Kentucky	6 91
Connecticut	30 50	Ohio	19 03
New-York	29 00	Michigan	11 83
New-Jersey	43 67	Indiana	10 66
Pennsylvania	27 33	Illinois	7 99
Delaware	19 75	Missouri	6 50
Maryland	18 81	Iowa	6 09
District of Columbia	63 03	Wisconsin	9 58
Virginia	8 27	California	0 99
North Carolina	3 23	Minnesota Territory	5 61
South Carolina	5 08	Oregon do.	6 58
Georgia	4 19	Utah do.	6 65
Florida	3 99	New-Mexico do.	5 69
Alabama	5 30	Average cash value per acre, including States, Districts, and Territories	\$10 79
Mississippi	5 22		

**IMPROVED LAND.**—The statement under this head in the agricultural table shows that the average quantity of improved land, by which is meant only such as produce crops, or in some manner add to the productions of the farmer, is about seven and one-third acres to each inhabitant; but as perhaps two-fifths of the population live in towns and villages, and are engaged in other pursuits than those of agriculture, the proportion of improved land to be assigned to each person occupying or working it may be assumed to be not less than twelve acres. In the New-England States, the average for the whole population is a little more than four acres to each person; in New-York and Pennsylvania, three and nine-tenth acres; in the other Middle States the same. In Virginia the proportion is about seven acres; in South Carolina, six acres; in Kentucky, twelve acres; and in Tennessee, five acres. The cash value of the farms in the United States is set down at \$3,270,733,093.

**UNIMPROVED LAND.**—This return is to be understood as including the unimproved land connected with or belonging to those farms from which productions are returned. In the present unsettled state of large portions of the country, this classification is of less practical utility than it will become at a future day, when similar returns will enable us to form calculations respecting the quantity of land brought into requisition annually for agricultural purposes. The preceding table exhibits the quantity and value of the improved and unimproved land belonging to the farms and plantations of the several states, and of course it includes the value of the buildings thereon.

**VALUE OF FARMING IMPLEMENTS AND MACHINERY.**—For no stronger proof of the ingenuity and activity of the American mind need we search, than that developed in the readiness with which labor-saving expedients for carrying on the commonest operations in agriculture are discovered and applied. One hundred and fifty-one millions of dollars would appear to be at this time invested in implements and machinery for aiding and abridging the work of the hands in cultivating the earth and in preparing its produce for consumption. In most civilized countries of the old world, so great is the density of the population, and the

prices of labor so low, as to create less necessity for such machines; and nowhere does the same amount of ingenuity appear to have been exercised in their preparation as is evinced with our mechanics and husbandmen.

In some portions of the old world where the necessity is felt and acknowledged by the intelligent, a predominant prejudice not unfrequently exists among others in the community against what is new, and prohibits the introduction of anything not stamped with the approval of their ancestors, nor covered with the venerable moss of antiquity. Here, however, no such sentiment influences the farmer to reject a useful invention.

No greater delight was enjoyed by foreigners in London, during the great Industrial Exhibition, than that by Americans on the trial of the reaping machines and the triumphant success of the American Reaper. Of the whole sum expended in articles of this character, New-York has invested \$22,084,926; Pennsylvania, \$14,722,541; Louisiana, \$11,576,938 (perhaps to a great extent in machinery for crushing sugarcane); Ohio, \$12,750,585; Kentucky, \$5,169,037; Virginia, \$7,021,772.

**DOMESTIC ANIMALS.**—When we consider the social condition of nations, long congregated and civilized, and necessarily existing under the impulses of utilitarianism, it is not surprising that man, whether possessing a permanent abode, or having emigrated to a distant land, should become attached to those animals which have proffered to him their perfect obedience, sagacity, courage, strength, velocity, milk, fleeces, flesh, &c., and should regard them with admiration, gratitude, and even affection. Such, doubtless, was the case with most of the adventurers who first sought a new home on our shores, and brought with them those animals which would render them the most assistance and subserve the best purposes for clothing and food.

The first animals introduced into America from Europe were by Columbus, in his second voyage, in 1493. He left Spain as admiral of seventeen ships, bringing a collection of European trees, plants, and seeds of various kinds, a number of horses, a bull and several cows.

The first horses brought into any part of the territory at present embraced in the United States, were landed in Florida

by Cabeza de Vaca, in 1527, forty-two in number, all of which perished or were otherwise killed. The next importation was also brought to Florida by De Soto, in 1539, which consisted of a large number of horses and swine, among which were thirteen sows, the progeny of the latter soon after increasing to several hundreds.

The Portuguese took cattle and swine to Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, in the year 1553. Thirty years after they had multiplied so abundantly, that Sir Richard Gilbert attempted to land there to obtain supplies of cattle and hogs for his crew, but was wrecked.

Swine and other domestic animals were brought over to Acadia by M. L. Escarbot, a French lawyer, in 1604, the year that country was settled. In 1608 the French extended their settlement into Canada, and soon after introduced various animals.

In 1609, three ships from England landed at Jamestown, in Virginia, with many emigrants and the following domestic animals, namely, six mares, one horse, six hundred swine, five hundred domestic fowls, with a few sheep and goats. Other animals had been previously introduced there. In 1611, Sir Thomas Gates brought over to the same settlement one hundred cows, besides other cattle. The year following Sir Ralph Lane imported some cows from the West Indies. In 1610, an edict was issued in Virginia prohibiting the killing of domestic animals of any kind on penalty of death to the principal, burning the hand and loss of the ears to the accessory, and twenty-four hours' whipping to the concealer.

As early as the year 1617, the swine had multiplied so rapidly in the colony that the people were obliged to palisade Jamestown to prevent being overrun with them. In 1627, the Indians near the settlement fed upon hogs, which had become wild, instead of game. Every family in Virginia, at that time, who had not an abundance of tame hogs and poultry, was considered very poor. In 1648, some of the settlers had a good stock of bees. In 1657, sheep and mares were forbidden to be exported from the province. By the year 1722, or before, sheep had somewhat multiplied, and bore good fleeces.

As early as 1629, the Plymouth colony of Massachusetts possessed cattle, goats,

poultry and swine. Hence it may be concluded that their importation followed soon after the first settlement in 1620. In the year 1629, one hundred and fifteen cattle were brought over in the "Grand Embarkation," besides some horses and mares, several conies, and forty-one goats.

In 1750, the French of Illinois were in possession of considerable numbers of horses, cattle, and swine.

The present stock of the United States consists of the offspring of the animals first introduced into the country; the crosses of the original breeds with one another, or the intermixture of the progeny of these crosses with those of more recent importation and the pure-blooded animals brought directly from Europe, or the crosses of these with one another.

The principal breeds of horses adapted for specific purposes, in the middle, northern, and western states, are the Norman, the Canadian, the Morgan, the Conestoga, or Pennsylvanian, the Virginian, and the Kentuckian. For carriages of heavy draught, the Conestogas are regarded by many as the best. For the saddle, draught, and other useful purposes, the Morgans are highly prized, especially in New-York. For roadsters, the Normans and Canadians are frequently sought. For blood, the Virginians and Kentuckians generally take the lead.

Among the various races of cattle existing among us, where strict regard is paid to breeding, with a definite object in view, a preference is given to the Durhams or Short Horns, the Herefords, the Ayrshires, and the Devons. The Durhams, from their rapid growths, early maturity and capability of taking on fat, are adapted only for high keeping, or to the richest pastures of the middle and northern states, and those of Ohio, Kentucky, and other parts of the west. The males, when judiciously crossed with the other breeds, or with the common cows of the country, often beget the best of milkers, and for this purpose they have been especially recommended. The Herefords, on the contrary, from their peculiar organization, are better adapted for poor or indifferent pastures, and regions subject to continued drought; and for this reason they are well suited for California, New Mexico, Texas, and other parts of the South. The oxen of this breed are good in the yoke, and the



cows, when properly fed, give an abundance of milk. The Ayrshires are best suited for a cool, mountainous region, or a cold, rigorous climate. They succeed well in Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, and Vermont, and are highly prized for their tameness, docile tempers, and rich milk. The Devons, from their hardihood, comparatively small size, and peculiar structure, appear to be adapted to almost every climate and to all kinds of pasturage. From their stoutness, good tempers, honesty, and quickness of action, they make the best teams, and in this respect their chief excellence consists. The cows make fair milkers, and their flesh very good beef. They also possess great aptitude to take on fat.

The kinds of sheep most sought for are the pure-blooded Merinos, the Saxons, the Cotswolds, the Leicestershires, the Oxfordshires, and the South Downs. The Merinos, including the Rambouillets, the Cotswolds, the Leicestershires, the Oxfordshires and the Saxons, are the most highly prized for their wool. The South Downs are particularly esteemed for the excellence of their flesh, and their wool is valuable for many purposes, on account of the facility with which it can be wrought.

The prevailing breeds of swine in the middle, northern, and western states are the Berkshire, the Leicestershire, the Suffolk, the Essex, the Neapolitan and the Chinese. From these and other varieties, various crosses have been produced, the more important of which are the Byfield, the Woburn, the Bedford, the Grass and the Mackay. The Neapolitans are particularly well adapted for a Southern climate.

In 1627, the plantations on James river contained about 2,000 head of horned cattle, goats in great abundance, and wild hogs in the forest without number. In 1639, there were in Virginia 30,000 cattle, 200 horses, and 70 asses; and in 1648, there were 20,000 cows, bulls and calves, 200 horses and mares, 50 asses, 3,000 sheep, 5,000 goats, swine, both tame and wild hens, turkeys, ducks and geese innumerable. There were exported from Savannah, in 1755, 48 horses and 16 steers and cows; in 1770, 345 horses, 30 mules and 25 steers and cows; and in 1772, 136 steers and cows. In 1820-1, there were exported from the United States 853 horses, 94 mules, 5,018 horned cattle, 11,117 sheep, and 7,885

swine; in 1830-1, 2,184 horses, 1,540 mules, 5,881 cattle, 8,262 sheep, and 14,690 swine; in 1840-1, 2,930 horses, 1,418 mules, 7,861 cattle, 14,639 sheep, and 7,901 swine; in 1850-1, 1,364 horses, 2,946 mules, 1,350 cattle, 4,357 sheep, and 1,030 swine.

According to the census returns of 1840, there were in the United States 4,336,669 horses and mules; 14,971,586 neat cattle, 19,311,374 sheep, and 26,301,293 swine; of 1850, 4,335,358 horses, 559,229 asses and mules, 28,360,141 horned cattle, (including 6,392,044 milch cows and 1,699,241 working oxen), 21,721,814 sheep, and 30,316,608 swine.

HORSES.—In the tables of 1840, horses, mules and asses were returned together; in those of the last census, the number of horses is given in one column and asses and mules in another. The increase in the aggregate number of these three classes of animals, during the ten years, was 559,053. It is presumed the greatest increase has occurred in the number of mules. Many suppose that the great extension of rail-roads has a tendency to dispense with the use of large numbers of horses; but one very good reason for the small apparent increase in the number of horses exists in the fact, that the enumeration of 1850 omits all in cities, and includes all or mainly such as are employed in agriculture or owned by farmers. In New-York, where there are less than a thousand mules, there appears to be a decline in the number of horses and mules together of 26,566; in Pennsylvania of about 13,000; in New-England of 17,000, or more than twenty-five per cent., while in all these states rail-road conveyance has almost superseded the use of horses for traveling purposes. On main routes we would more readily attribute the apparent diminution to the omission to enumerate the horses in cities and towns than to any superseding of horse-power, which the opening of rail-roads would often bring into requisition in various other operations. In Ohio, and the new states of the Northwest, the increase of horses has kept pace with that of the population. The four and a quarter millions of these noble animals in the United States constitute a proportion of one to five of the inhabitants. New-York has one horse to seven persons; Pennsylvania, one to six and six-tenths; Ohio, one to four; Ken-

tucky, one to three free inhabitants. The number of horses in the United States is more than three times as large as that in Great Britain.

**ASSES AND MULES.**—As mentioned in the preceding paragraph, we find in the tables of 1840 no basis of comparison in regard to the raising of asses and mules. By the last return it is shown that the number of these animals in the Union is 559,070, of which all but 30,000 are found in the Southern States. For various employments, the mule is far better adapted to that region than the horse. Extreme and long-continued heat does not enfeeble him, and the expense of his subsistence and general care is much less, in comparison with the service he is able to perform. In some Northern States a considerable number formerly were reared for export, and a brisk trade was kept up with the West Indies in this kind of stock. What are now exported from the points which formerly monopolized this branch of traffic are brought from the South. Tennessee is the leading state in the production of mules, the number in that state, in 1850, having been 75,303; Kentucky was next, having 65,609. In New-Mexico the number of mules was 8,654, greater by nearly four-fifths than the horses returned for that territory. Much attention has been given to the improvement of mules in some of our Southern States, and those sent from Kentucky, Tennessee and Missouri, to be employed in army transportation in Mexico, were often not inferior in height to the horses of that country, and were at all times superior to them in strength, endurance and usefulness.

**MILCH COWS.**—Under the general term of neat cattle were embraced, in the Sixth Census, the three descriptions of animals designated in that of 1840 as milch cows, working oxen and other cattle. The aggregate of the three classes in 1840 was 14,971,586; in 1850, 18,355,287. The increase, therefore, between the two periods, was 3,383,701, or about twenty per cent. They appear to be distributed quite equally over the Union. The amount of butter gives an average of something over 49 pounds to each milch cow. The average production of cheese to each cow is 162 pounds. As with horses, the same allowance must be made on account of the omission of cows, except in connection with

agriculture. The only schedule in which the live stock of the country could be enumerated, were those used for obtaining the agricultural products of farms. From this fact the schedules for population and manufactures being alone used in cities, their live stock was not included in them.

**BUTTER AND CHEESE.**—The census of 1840 furnishes us no statistics from which we can accurately determine the quantity of butter and cheese then produced. The value of both is given under the heading of value of the products of the dairy, at the sum of \$33,787,000. It is presumed that the marshals made their returns in accordance with the prices governing in their respective districts, which would differ so widely as to render any assumed average as mere conjecture. New-York is far in advance of any other state in the productiveness of its dairies. They yield one-fourth of all the butter, and nearly one-half the cheese produced in the Union. Pennsylvania, which makes 40,000,000 lbs. of butter, is less prolific in cheese than many smaller states. In this latter article, Ohio is before all other competitors, except New-York.

The following table shows the amount of dairy products exported from the United States for several years past.—

	Butter, lbs.	Cheese, lbs.	Value.
1820—21.....	1,069,024.....	706,431.....	\$190,287
1830—31.....	1,728,213.....	1,131,817.....	264,796
1840—41.....	3,785,993.....	1,748,471.....	504,815
1841—42.....	3,055,153.....	2,456,607.....	385,185
1842—43.....	3,408,247.....	3,440,144.....	508,908
1843—44.....	3,251,952.....	7,343,145.....	758,829
1844—45.....	3,587,489.....	7,941,187.....	878,865
1845—46.....	3,436,660.....	8,675,390.....	1,063,087
1846—47.....	4,214,433.....	15,673,606.....	1,741,770
1847—48.....	3,751,086.....	12,913,305.....	1,361,668
1848—49.....	3,406,242.....	17,433,682.....	1,654,157
1849—50.....	3,876,175.....	13,020,917.....	1,215,426
1850—51.....	3,994,542.....	10,361,189.....	1,124,632

**SHEEP.**—There was, between 1840 and 1850, an increase of 2,309,108 in the number of sheep in the United States. It will be useful to observe with some closeness the progress of sheep breeding in different parts of the country. We perceive that in New England there has occurred a remarkable decrease in their number. There were in that division of the Union, in 1840, 3,811,307; in 1850, the number had declined to 2,164,452, being a decrease of 1,646,855, or 45 per cent.

In the five Atlantic Middle States—New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland—there was a

decrease from 7,402,851 to 5,641,391, equal to 1,761,460, or about 22½ per cent. In Pennsylvania there was a gain, however, during this period, of 155,000 sheep.

We see that while there has been a positive diminution of 3,408,000 in the states above named, there has been an augmentation of 5,717,608 in those south of Maryland and west of New-York. Ohio has gained most largely, having been returned as pasturing, in 1840, 2,028,401; and in 1850, 3,942,929: an increase of 1,914,528, or nearly 100 per cent.

In each of the states south and west of the lines indicated, there has been a very large proportional increase in this kind of stock, and there is reasonable ground for the opinion that the hilly lands of Virginia, North and South Carolina, Tennessee, and the prairies of Illinois, Iowa, and Texas, will prove highly favorable for the rearing of sheep for their wool and pelts.

New-Mexico has the extraordinary number of 377,271 sheep, more than six to each inhabitant, proving the soil and climate of that territory to be well adapted to this description of stock, and giving promise of a large addition from that quarter to the supply of wool. The importance of fostering this great branch of national production, is shown by the fact, as assumed by an intelligent writer on the subject, that our population annually consumes an amount of wool equal to 7 pounds for each person.

If this estimate be even an approximation to correctness, we are yet very far short of producing a quantity adequate to the wants of the country; and it is equally clear that we possess an amount of unemployed land adapted to grazing sufficient to support flocks numerous enough to clothe the people of the world.

**VALUE OF LIVE STOCK.**—The very large amount representing the value of live stock in the United States cannot be considered extravagant in view of the immense number of animals returned. It is an item of agricultural capital which affords a good indication of the wealth and prosperity of the country.

**Wool.**—Analogous to the uses for which it serves to cotton, wool is a product of only less importance to the prosperity of the country than that leading staple of our agriculture and commerce.

It is a very gratifying fact that, though the number of sheep has increased, in ten years, but twelve per cent, the aggregate weight of their fleeces has augmented forty-six per cent.

In 1840, there were 19,311,374 sheep, yielding 35,802,114 pounds of wool, equal to 1 84-100 pounds per head.

In 1850, the average weight of each fleece was 2 43-100 pounds, from which it would appear that such an improvement had taken place in the various breeds of the American sheep as to increase their average product about thirty-two per cent throughout the United States. And a critical analysis of the returns of sheep and wool proves not only that our breeds are capable of such improvement, but that it has actually taken place.

In Vermont the greatest attention has been given to sheep breeding; time, money and intelligence have been freely applied to the great object of obtaining a breed combining weight and fineness of fleece. These efforts have succeeded so well, that although the number of sheep in that state had declined nearly half in the period from the sixth to the seventh census, the yield of wool remained nearly the same. The average weight of the fleece in this state, in 1840, was 2 1-5 pounds, and in 1850 it had increased to 3 71-100 pounds; the gain being equal to almost 70 per cent.

In Massachusetts also, where strenuous exertions have been made, though not on so large a scale as in Vermont, to improve their sheep, a correspondingly beneficial result has been obtained, and the average weight of the fleece has been increased from 2½ to 3 1-10 pounds.

The State of New-York produced 226,000 pounds more wool, in 1850, from 3,453,000 sheep, than from 5,118,000 in 1840, showing that the weight of the fleece had been raised from less than two to nearly three pounds.

Our imports of wool during the past ten years have varied as follows:—

Years.	Quantity in Pounds.	Value.
1841.....	15,006,410.....	\$1,091,953
1842.....	11,490,958.....	797,482
1843 (nine months).....	3,517,100.....	245,000
1844.....	14,008,000.....	851,460
1845.....	23,833,040.....	1,680,794
1846.....	16,558,247.....	1,134,226
1847.....	8,460,109.....	555,622
1848.....	11,341,429.....	857,034
1849.....	17,869,022.....	1,177,347
1850.....	18,669,794.....	1,168,691

By this statement it is shown that the quantity of wool brought into the country, of late years, amounts to almost one-third part of that produced in it, while at former periods, as from 1841 and 1845, the quantity was nearly one-half. The largest proportion of this imported wool was chiefly from Buenos Ayres and the neighboring states on the Rio de la Plata, and is of a coarse and cheap variety, costing from six to eight cents per pound. It will be always cheaper to bring this kind of wool

from regions where sheep are reared without care or labor than to produce it at home; but there is no country in the world in which sheep may, by judicious treatment, be made a source of greater wealth and comfort to its inhabitants than the United States.

The importations of wool in 1849 and 1850 exhibit a remarkable increase over the preceding or any former year, amounting in quantity to 32,548,693 pounds, and to the value of \$3,800,000.

#### ART. V.—DECISIONS OF THE SUPREME COURT OF LOUISIANA.

REPORTS OF CASES ARGUED AND DETERMINED IN THE SUPREME COURT OF LOUISIANA. BY HON. F. Z. MARTIN—TWENTY VOLUMES COMPRISED IN TEN, WITHOUT ABBREVIATION, WITH NOTES OF DECISIONS UP TO SEVENTH ANNUAL REPORTS, AND REFERENCES TO THE AMENDMENTS OF THE CONSTITUTION AND CODES. BY THOS. GIBBES MORGAN. NEW-ORLEANS: J. B. STEEL.

[It is not our purpose to review this great work, but simply to refer to some of the traits of Judge Martin's legal character, and to the circumstances under which the reports were first prepared, as we find them in the memoir of Judge Bullard, drawn up several years ago. We make a few extracts.]

"Seven years before the period of which I am speaking, (1809,) Louisiana was a Spanish province; governed by a system of laws written in a language understood by only a small part of the population, and which had been forced upon the people at the point of the bayonet by O'Reilly, and which superseded the ancient French laws by which the province had been previously governed. Upon the change of government the writ of habeas corpus, that great bulwark of personal liberty, had been introduced, together with the system of proceedings in criminal cases, and the trial by jury, according to the principles of the common law. In 1808 was promulgated the digest of the civil laws, then in force in Louisiana, commonly called the old code. That compilation was little more than a mutilated copy of the Code Napoleon. But instead of abrogating all previous laws and creating an entire system, as had been done in France by the Code Napoleon, superseding the discordant customs, ordinances and laws in the different departments, our code was considered as a declaratory law, repealing such only as were repugnant to it, and leaving partially in force the voluminous codes of Spain. The Superior Court had already been organized for some years,

and was composed of three judges, any one of whom formed a *quorum*; and as the several judges then sat separately in the different districts, each could pronounce a judgment in the last resort. There was no means of establishing uniformity of decision: no publicity had been given to the decisions, and the public was without any guarantee for their uniformity. The law was wholly unsettled and in a state of chaos. The Court of Cassation in France had begun, it is true, to fix the interpretation of their code, but the rules applicable to ours were obviously different in many respects, in consequence of the manifest difference in their creating and repealing clauses. It became necessary to study and compare the French and Spanish codes; and although the Roman law never had *proprio vigore* any binding force here, yet in doubtful cases, or in cases in which the positive law was silent, it might well be consulted as the best revelation of the principles of eternal justice, and, as it were, an anticipated commentary upon the code.

"Judge Martin felt at once the difficulty of the task before him, and he determined to commence without delay the publication of reports of cases decided by the Superior Court. He was induced to un-



dertake that labor for the double purpose of giving publicity to the decisions of the court, in the nature of a *compte rendu* to the people, and thus guarding against misrepresentations or misapprehensions, and to ensure to a certain extent uniformity of decision. The first volume appeared in the spring of 1811, and a second in 1813, bringing down the decisions of the court from 1809 to the establishment of the state government.

"At that period a Supreme Court was created, having appellate jurisdiction only. That court was at first composed of Judges Hall, Mathews and Derbigny, and Judge Martin was appointed the first attorney-general of the state, on the 19th of February, 1813. He was an able criminal lawyer, and although it has been said he was not eloquent, yet he is admitted to have discharged the duties of that office with zeal and ability. After the resignation of Hall, he was appointed a judge of the Supreme Court on the first of February, 1815. From that period he continued in office until the 18th of March, 1846—a period of more than thirty-one years. He entered on his eighty-fifth year on the very day he was superseded by the appointments under the new constitution.

"The time at which Judge Martin was appointed to the Supreme Court will ever form a memorable epoch in the history of Louisiana. A powerful invading army menaced the capital: the citizens were in arms: martial law had been proclaimed by the general in command; and by an act of the legislature, passed on the 18th of December previous, all judicial proceedings in civil cases were suspended until the first of May: no business was transacted at the January and February terms of the court. In the mean time the enemy had been repulsed and peace restored. Official information, however, had not yet reached here of the treaty of Ghent, and when the court met early in March martial law was still in force.

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"He continued to publish his reports of the decisions of the Supreme Court until 1830, and, including the two small volumes containing the decisions of the Superior Court, already mentioned, he produced twenty volumes, embracing the entire period from 1809 to 1830. During nearly all that time from 1810 he was one of the judges, and performed

his full share of the labor of the court. The opinions prepared by him exhibit evidence of deep learning and extensive research, while at the same time he superintended himself the printing and publication of his reports.

\* \* \* \* \*

"Not only was Judge Martin aided in moulding into form and symmetry our system of jurisprudence, by the quick perception of what is just, and the instinctive sense of equity of Mathews, and the more ardent industry and extensive research and erudition of Porter, and previously by the unpretending but extensive learning of Derbigny—but the period between the organization of the territorial government and the repeal of the Spanish law, was the classical age of the bar of Louisiana. The court was assisted in its researches and enlightened in its path by the various learning and elegant scholarship, and profound knowledge of different systems of jurisprudence, of Livingston and Brown, Workman and Moreau Lisbet, and Duncan, and numerous others. It does not become me to speak of the survivors of that distinguished corps. They form the living and brilliant link which connects that generation of lawyers with the present. It was then the sources of the Roman, Spanish and French laws were extensively explored, and a taste for *comparative jurisprudence* was created for the first time in the United States. The principles of the common, the customary and the Roman laws were invoked together and placed in juxtaposition.—The illustrious writers on jurisprudence of the 16th century in France, Spain, Italy and Germany, were consulted and compared. The most antiquated of the Gothic codes were studied, not as monuments of literary curiosity, but as fragments of pre-existing systems of human laws, originating either with the Romans or their barbarian conquerors. The whole of these various and often discordant materials were fused into one mass, and the court left to select such principles as appeared most consonant with the general scope and enactments of the codes. Whoever has read the first twenty-five volumes of our reports, cannot fail to have observed what vast stores of legal erudition were brought to light in the discussion of leading cases, and how much the range has been narrowed since our jurisprudence ha

become better settled under the more full and explicit text of the new code.

"It is thus we have witnessed the formation, even its process of crystallization, as it were, of the existing jurisprudence of Louisiana. Its ingredients are derived from various sources, and after being filtered through numerous codes, meet in one harmonious mass. The protection of wives, incautiously engaged for the contracts of their husbands, rests upon a Roman *senatus consultum*—their ultimate rights in the property acquired during the marriage, upon the customs of the erratic tribes that overrun Gaul, and were carried by the Visigoths across the Pyrenees. The wisdom of Alphonso is found infused into many of the institu-

tions, which owe their origin to Alfred the Great. The common law has paid back a part of what it had borrowed from the Roman jurisprudence. The commercial law, standing out almost independently of the code, rests in a great measure upon the usages of commercial states, but more especially of the United States and Great Britain, but slightly modified by positive local legislation. The whole body of our law thus forms a system, most admired by those who understand it best, and who can trace back its principles to the sources from which they originally flowed. Of the spring-heads of our law it may be said, as it has been of the waters of Castalia:

'There shallow drafts intoxicate the brain,  
But drinking deeply sobers us again.'

#### ART. VI.—WISCONSIN AND THE GROWTH OF THE NORTH-WEST.

[In our January Number appeared a paper upon Wisconsin, which we are now enabled to complete, in every particular, from a pamphlet prepared by J. H. Lathrop, Chancellor of the University of that state. The information will be entirely new to our readers in the South-west.]

At the opening of the 19th century, the "Territory North-west of the Ohio" was an unbroken wilderness, shared in doubtful supremacy by the aboriginal man and the other denizens of the forest and prairie.

It were needless to except from the universality of this description the occasional advent of the Indian trader, the nascent settlements on the Ohio, which were attempting a precarious existence, or the military posts which were pushed into this outer domain of our Republic, in token of our political dominion, and as heralds of an advancing civilization.

In 1802, the State of Ohio was carved out of the body of the North-west and admitted into the federal Union. Steadily advancing in population, wealth and respectability, to its present enviable position in our political system, her brief but impressive history commands the admiration of older communities, and awakens the generous emulation of the new. Her population, in 1850, had reached nearly 2,000,000 souls, and she ranks the third in the sisterhood of states.

The history of Ohio has been the history in succession of Indiana, Illinois and Michigan. Their advance has been, in

like manner, rapid in population and in the other elements of political greatness. The four states above enumerated contained, in 1850, 4,000,000 of freemen.

Surprising as these results are, transcending all that the world had previously known of the creation of new political communities by the peaceful migration of men and of the arts, distancing even all previous experience in the settlement of the new world, it might seem enough for Wisconsin, the youngest of the creations of the Ordinance of '87, to say, that she is of the North-west, and shares with her kindred states in the experience of a like early development.

But to say this, is not enough. The settlement of Wisconsin has thus far been on a scale unapproached even by that of the four states above enumerated, and constituting with her, the area long familiarly known as the "Territory North-west of the Ohio."

That this is not a vain boast, is a fact too broadly and familiarly known, to need the formality of demonstration. For the satisfaction of the curious, however, there is appended hereto a tabular view of the population of the five states of the North-west, for decades of years, constructed by collating the census re-

turns from 1800 down to 1850. From this table it appears, that during the decade 1840—50, the population of Wisconsin advanced from 30,000 to 305,000, while, at corresponding decades of their growth, Ohio presents the figures from 45,000 to 230,000, Michigan from 31,000 to 212,000, while the corresponding increase of Indiana and Illinois was in a much smaller ratio.

It will be observed, that the increase of Wisconsin, for the ten years ending in 1850, was 900 per cent. By examination of the census returns of that year, it will be found that the increase of Iowa was 345 per cent.; that of Arkansas, 114 per cent., and of no other state over 100 per cent. during the same period.

This migration to Wisconsin, unparalleled as it is in the experience of states, has not been the fitful result of the gambling mania which is luring its hordes of victims to the land of gold. It has been the steady and persistent flow of men and capital, seeking a permanent home and a profitable investment. After filling up the southern tier of counties, the unbroken tide is setting strongly to the fertile valleys of the Fox and Wisconsin rivers, with their tributaries, and to the Mississippi border.

Wisconsin is no less distinguished in the character of its early settlers than in their number. Recklessness and wild adventure have found little place in the history of this migration.

Michigan was fairly open to survey and settlement as early as 1830, and in the course of the succeeding ten years its capabilities were explored and appreciated, during which period its population rose, by a massive emigration, from 31,000 to 212,000.

In 1840 the relations of Wisconsin to the intelligent enterprise of the eastern states were what those of Michigan were ten years earlier. The straits had been passed by sails and by steam, and the Territory of Wisconsin was open to settlement.

The conviction, however, had fastened itself on the mind of New-England and New-York, that the physical elements of prosperity were more decided and more readily available in Wisconsin, and would work out an earlier maturity, economical and social, than had been realized in the history of other states.

In accordance with these impressions,

it is confessedly true that the basis of the social character of Wisconsin has been laid in a migration as distinguished in character as it has been surpassing in numbers. The intellect, the education and integrity—the head and the heart,—as well as the enterprise, the wealth, the industry and the skill of New-York and New-England, have been laid broadly and deeply under requisition to furnish out the staple of the population which is to leave its impress on the state for generations to come.

Wisconsin has been equally fortunate in the numbers and the material of her foreign emigration.

The great European movement which is likely to characterize the latter half of the 19th century, will consist, not so much in the improvement of the forms of social organization at home, as in the reproduction of her civilization under greatly improved conditions, by a massive emigration to the new world, whose broad surface of land, still unoccupied, is demanding settlement and cultivation, with a voice now familiar to the ear, and attuned to the heart of Europe.

There is a Germany in America which is destined to be greater than the German's fatherland. Ireland is already cis-atlantic and regenerate. The Scandinavian, with his remarkable power of assimilation, touches our shores, and is American in thought, feeling and language.

From all these sources, Wisconsin is deriving large and steady accessions of numbers and of wealth, of enterprise and of cultivated intellect; not of those who drop down by accident within our borders, but of those who leave their native shores with no other intention than to find a home in Wisconsin.

Through those several channels of increase and progress, Wisconsin presented in the year 1850—the *third* of her existence as a sovereign state and a member of the national union—a population of 305,000 souls, a result absolutely without parallel in the settlement of states.

And it is equally true that the opening of her career as a sovereign state has been from a point of nearer approximation to the standard of social maturity which prevails on the Atlantic border, and with far less sacrifice of the advantages and refinements of modern civilization, than has been true of other new states, whether of the North-west,

or of other portions of the great valley. It is, therefore, an interesting question, and one which has attracted attention, public and private, what are the natural capabilities of Wisconsin, which have made so broad and permanent an impression upon the mass of mind at home and abroad, as to bring to her shores so large a portion of the men and the capital that are annually seeking a home and investment in the West?

The answer to this inquiry naturally arranges itself under a variety of heads, which will be very briefly considered.

**GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION.**—The State of Wisconsin comprises most of that part of the original North-western territory which lies north of the parallel of latitude  $42^{\circ} 30'$  and between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi River, and extending to Lake Superior on the north. A portion of this expanse of territory, lying between Green Bay and Lake Superior and to the north and east of Menomonee and Montreal rivers, is attached to Michigan; and another portion, west and north of the St. Croix and St. Louis rivers, to Minnesota.

The area of Wisconsin, exclusive of the waters of Lake Michigan and Superior, comprises fifty-four thousand square miles, or thirty-five millions of acres.

**CLIMATE.**—Included between parallels  $42^{\circ} 30'$  and  $48^{\circ}$  north, the climate of Wisconsin is of the same general character with that of New-York and New-England. The average annual temperature, however, of Wisconsin, is not of so low a figure as that of the same parallels on the Atlantic border. The atmosphere is drier, more transparent and salubrious, and the whole area of the state is remarkably free from those causes of endemic disease which were by no means unknown in the settlement of western New-York, which have been the misfortune of large portions of Michigan, and the scourge of Indiana, Illinois, Missouri and, in part, of Iowa. Wisconsin is conceded to be the healthiest of the western states. Its summers are adapted, in temperature and duration, to perfect all the products natural to the latitude, but are not oppressive. Its autumns are proverbially delightful. Its winters are close and uniform, but not harsh or generally severe.

**GEOLOGICAL FEATURES, SOIL, &c.**—The limestone, underlying the coal fields of Illinois, forms the immediate

basis of the alluvion of Southern Wisconsin. This geological district, in addition to that portion of the state which lies southerly of the valley of the Wisconsin River, comprises the whole of the slope towards Lake Michigan.

In many portions of this district the limerock disappears, and the out-cropping sandstone furnishes a fine material for building.

The lead-bearing rock of the mineral region is a porous limestone, prevailing throughout Grant, La Fayette and Iowa counties, comprising four-fifths of the "Lead District" of the Upper Mississippi; the remaining one-fifth being in the states of Illinois and Iowa.

Deposits of iron ore, water limestone, and beds of gypsum, together with other varieties of minerals, are found in localities more or less numerous throughout the limestone region.

All of that section of the state which lies between Lake Superior on the North, and the Falls of St. Anthony on the Mississippi, and the falls of the other rivers flowing southerly, is primitive in its prevailing geological character; and it is within this primitive region that the copper mines of Lake Superior are found—probably the richest in the world, and apparently inexhaustible.

In all that portion of the state lying between the primitive region just described, and the limestone formation of the South and East, the transition sandstone prevails, interspersed with limestone, and, more sparsely, with rock of a primitive character. This formation comprises that section of country drained by the Wisconsin and other rivers tributary to the upper Mississippi, and below the falls of those streams. Within this geological district are found quarries of white marble, which promise to be abundant and valuable.

The character of the soil of Wisconsin is, of course, indicated to some extent by its geological features. The limestone district of the state is overspread by a soil and subsoil similar to that which prevails in other portions of the great valley, and unsurpassed by any in fertility. It is the distinction of the mineral region of Wisconsin, that it is overspread by a surface of the very finest agricultural qualities, contrary to the general fact, that a mining district is worthless for the purposes of culture.

Proceeding northerly and westward-



ly of the dividing ridge between the waters of Lake Michigan and those that flow into the Upper Mississippi, the soil will be observed to become more sandy and porous; a character which will be found to prevail throughout the sandstone region above described. This portion of the state admits of easy cultivation. The soil is warm and highly productive, and the growth luxuriant.

**FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SCENERY, &c.**

—The surface of Lake Michigan is about six hundred feet above the level of the ocean. The surface of the state is every where undulating; not hilly, much less mountainous. Its average level below latitude 46° is about 250 feet above Lake Michigan; seldom falling so low as 100 feet, and rarely rising above 400 feet. The highest of the Blue Mounds, on the line between the counties of Dane and Iowa, rises 1,170 feet above Lake Michigan, and is perhaps the most elevated land in Wisconsin.

There is a remarkable depression in the surface of the country, running across the state, from Green Bay to the Mississippi, the bottom of which furnishes the channels of the Fox and the Lower Wisconsin. The portage between these two rivers is less than two miles.

This portage is but 223 feet above the level of Lake Michigan; being the elevation of the dividing ridge at this point, between the basin of the lakes and the valley of the Mississippi. At the mouth of the Wisconsin, the western terminus of this depression is about 60 feet above Lake Michigan; that of Lake Winnebago, at the head of the rapids of the Fox, being 160 feet.

From the north into this valley flow the Upper Wisconsin and the Wolf, and on the south the country rises to the level of the head waters of the Rock, 316 feet above the surface of Lake Michigan. Thence there is a gradual inclination of the surface southerly to the line of the state; the elevation of which at the egress of the Rock is 128 feet above the lake.

It is characteristic of the state, that the streams uniformly flow in beds but very slightly depressed below the general level of the adjacent country, and present no difficulty in the way of con-

struction of roads of easy grade, transversely, as well as in the line of water-courses. There is also, from this cause, much less to be apprehended from the sudden and destructive swell of the volume of water, from copious rains—two considerations, which they know best how to appreciate, who have dwelt where rivers and their branches make their beds in deep valleys, while the general elevation of the country is but a succession of intervening ridges.

Such being a general description of the surface of Wisconsin, the immigrant will not look for Alpine scenery, or the bolder and sublimer features of the country of high mountain and deep valley. But in all that constitutes the beauty of the landscape, whether in the vestments of nature, or in those capabilities which cultivation can alone develop, Wisconsin is without a rival.—Among her ten thousand undulations, there is scarcely one which lifts its crown above its fellows, which does not disclose to the prophetic eye of taste a possible Eden, a vision of loveliness, which time and the hand of cultivation will not fail to realize and to verify.

The only forests, of a growth approximating towards that of Western New-York, Pennsylvania and Northern Ohio, are found in a small portion of the Rock River valley, and in a narrow border on Lake Michigan, widening as it is traced northerly; evergreens becoming more freely interspersed, and finally predominating.

The evergreen growth prevails in the valleys of the streams of the sandstone district. The most extensive pinery in the state is found on the upper Wisconsin. The same valuable growth prevails in the valleys of the Wolf, the La Crosse, the Black, the Chippewa, the St. Croix, and other streams penetrating the sandstone region.

Aside from these localities and the primitive region of Lake Superior, the elements of the Wisconsin landscape are the rolling prairie, the sparse woodland, the opening, the natural meadow, and the lake. These, in their infinite variety of combination, and in their unrivaled loveliness, make up the natural scenery of the state. Three hundred and fifty thousand souls have, in a day, as it were, found a happy home in Wisconsin. But her millions of acres, equal-

ly beautiful, and all untouched, are still courting the hand of cultivation and the adornings of art.

**EDUCATION.**—The bounty of Congress has set apart the 16th section of every township in the state for the support and maintenance of common schools. From this source, nearly 1,000,000 acres will accrue to the state, the proceeds of the sales of which are to constitute a permanent fund, the income of which is to be annually devoted to the great purposes of the grant.

This magnificent foundation has been wisely enlarged by constitutional provisions, giving the same direction to the donation of 500,000 acres, under the act of 1841, and the five per cent. reserved on all sales of government lands within the state. A still larger addition will accrue from the grant of the swamp and overflowed lands, which the settlement of the country, the lapse of time, and easy processes of reclamation, will convert into the best meadow land in the world, and a large portion, ultimately, into arable.

For the support of a state university, seventy-two sections of choice land, comprising 46,080 acres, have been already granted, and it is not improbable that this provision may be also enlarged by subsequent grants. If these trusts are administered with ordinary wisdom, the educational funds of Wisconsin cannot be less, ultimately, than \$3,000,000, and may reach \$5,000,000.

The university is already chartered and in successful operation. The school system has been wisely designed, and the progress of organization, under the law, keeps pace with the progress of settlement. There are already not far from two thousand five hundred school districts in the state. The annual income to be divided, has already reached \$70,000, and will be greatly increased from year to year.

The system contemplates, by the introduction of union schools, to extend academic instruction to each town in the state.

In addition to this munificent public provision for common and liberal education, there are, in different parts of the state, educational incorporations, both academic and collegiate, founded on private subscription. The most promising of these are the college at Beloit, well endowed, and in success-

ful operation: and similar institutions at Milwaukee, Racine and Waukesha, in Eastern Wisconsin, and at Appleton, in the North.

Indeed, in none of the new states, even in the North-west, will the means of education be more ample; and in none is there a more rational appreciation of the importance of this paramount public interest.

In Wisconsin, as in the other states of this Union, there is, and ever will be, an entire freedom of ecclesiastical organization, and an equal protection of every religious institution and arrangement, conservative of good morals, and protective of the highest and most enduring interests of man.

In consideration of all these elements of prosperity, economical and social, such as have never, till now, gathered around the opening career of a new political community, there is little ground for wonder that the early growth of Wisconsin has been without a parallel in the history of states; and it may be very safely assumed, that the advent of men and capital to that favored portion of the North-west, will continue, in increasing volume, for many years to come.

**Mining.**—To the practical miner, as capitalist or operative, *the lead region of the Upper Mississippi offers the most substantial inducements to settlement.* The exceeding abundance and richness of the mineral; the comparative ease with which it may be mined; and the high price it commands the moment it is brought to the surface, open to the industrious and prudent operator a highway to wealth.

New leads of the richest promise have been recently discovered in the mineral district, and an increasing emigration to that section of the state promises to replace the California draft, and to meet the growing demand for the mineral.

The steady advance in the price of lead which has prevailed for five years past, is indicative of a gradual but decided extension of its uses in the arts.—There is no ground for apprehension that the supply will outrun the demand, or be able to work a reduction of the wages of labor and profits of capital in this industrial occupation, for some years to come.

The copper mines of Lake Superior are of established celebrity throughout

the world, and open an inviting field for enterprise. The mining interest in that region is fast losing its character of adventure, and is attracting the attention of the prudent capitalist and the practical miner, as a remunerative branch of business.

The iron mines of Wisconsin have not yet been opened to any extent, but are worthy of the attention of the immigrant. There are rich localities of ore near the head waters of the Rock, and on the Upper Mississippi and its branches.

**LUMBERING.**—To the lumberman, the pineries of Wisconsin present inducements for investment and settlement which can be hardly overrated. That of the Upper Wisconsin and its tributaries is the most extensive, and distinguished still more for the fine quality, than the inexhaustible quantities of its timber. The other localities of the white pine and other evergreens are mainly on the Wolf, the great northern affluent of the Fox, and on the La Crosse, the Black and the St. Croix, branches of the Upper Mississippi.

The rapids of these streams furnish abundant water-power for the manufacture of lumber; and on the annual spring rise, and occasional freshets at other seasons of the year, the yield of the mills is floated from the Wolf into Lake Winnebago and the Lower Fox, and from the other streams into the Mississippi.

Scarcely ten years have elapsed, since the Alleghany pine of Western New-York and Pennsylvania had undisputed possession of the market, not only of the Ohio valley but of the Mississippi and its tributaries, above New-Orleans; at which point it competed with the lumber of Maine and New-Brunswick.

The course of the lumber trade may now be considered as permanently changed. The pineries of Wisconsin now control, and will soon hold exclusive possession of the market of the valleys of the Mississippi and its great western affluents.

**AGRICULTURE.**—But it is to that great body of emigrants who are seeking a home in the West, as cultivators of the soil, that the natural capabilities of Wisconsin most of all address themselves.

The prairies of Wisconsin, unlike those of Illinois, Missouri, Iowa and Minnesota, are none of them extensive; and are so

skirted and belted by timber, as to be adapted to immediate and profitable occupation and improvement to their very centre.

The openings, which comprise a large portion of the finest land of Wisconsin, owe their present condition to the action of the annual fires, which have kept under all other forest growth, except those varieties of oak which can withstand the sweep of that element.

This annual burning of an exuberant growth of grass and of underbrush, has been adding, perhaps for ages, to the productive power of the soil, and preparing it for the ploughshare, without the life-long process which was necessary to bring the densely timbered lands of Ohio to the same advanced point of preparation, for immediate and profitable cultivation.

It is the great fact, that nature has thus "cleared up" Wisconsin to the hand of the settler, and enriched it by yearly burnings, and has at the same time left sufficient timber on the ground for fence and firewood, that explains in a great measure the capacity it has exhibited, and is now exhibiting, for rapid settlement and early maturity.

There is another fact important to be noticed in this connection. The low level prairie, or natural meadow, of moderate extent, is so generally distributed over the face of the country, that the settler, on a fine section of arable land, finds on his own farm, or in his immediate neighborhood, abundant pasturage for his stock in summer, on the open range, and hay for the winter, for the cutting—the bounty of Nature supplying his need in this behalf, till the cultivated grasses may be introduced and become sufficient for his use.

It is this very rapid transition of a quarter-section of government land into an *old farm*, without a tithe of the privations and hardships which hung around the lifetime of the early pioneers of Ohio, which distinguishes the early settlement of Wisconsin.

Every description of husbandry suitable to the latitude, may be successfully prosecuted. In addition to the usual routine of crops, the business of stock-raising, of dairy, of wool-growing, and the culture of flax, are beginning to engage the attention of settlers, with promise of eminent success.

The steady and exclusive prosecution

of agriculture on the fertile soil of the mineral district, has the advantage of an active home market and ready pay.—Hitherto, in consequence of the tempting and absorbing nature of the mining business, the cultivation of the soil has given place to “prospecting” for mineral. Agricultural lands, therefore, though of the very first order of fertility, have been neglected, and may be purchased at very low rates.

The same general remarks apply to the agricultural lands in the pineries.—Though of different elements from the soil which prevails in the limestone region, it is easily worked, and of undoubted productive power. The home market is still more importunate in its demands, and as promptly remunerative.

And of the millions of acres comprised in the area of Wisconsin, by far the greatest portion may still be entered at the land offices at \$1.25 per acre, paid down in specie, or in land warrants.

Several hundred thousand acres of school lands, in the older counties, are now open to entry at their appraised value, at the office of the Secretary of State, at the capitol in Madison; one-tenth of the purchase money down, and the residue on a long credit at seven per cent. per annum.

Choice lands, located for the maintenance of the State University, may also be entered at their appraised value, at the office of the Secretary of State, on even better terms of payment than the school lands.

It is worth while to add, that the California emigration and other temporary causes have thrown in market, at reduced prices, many improved farms in choice locations in the older counties. The opportunity for investment thus offered, is worthy of the attention of the emigrant; and facts relative thereto may be easily ascertained on inquiry at private land offices in the larger towns in the state.

**MANUFACTURES.**—The artisan will find a fair field for his labor, and for the employment of capital in Wisconsin.

For the ordinary mechanic arts which are inseparable from agricultural thrift anywhere, the demand is importunate. Builders of every class and degree are liberally paid in the larger towns. Millwrights are sure to find employment in town or country, whether the mill-power be water or steam. Carriage making,

from the manufacture of the rail-road car to the simple vehicle, whether useful or tasteful, is greatly in demand, and cannot fail to do well.

Among the larger operations of manufacture, those of flour and lumber are becoming sources of profit to the capitalist and laborer, and beneficial to the farmer. Woolen, flax and cotton mills must soon become fixed facts in Wisconsin. The raw material for the two former will soon be among the larger and more profitable home productions of her agriculture, while the supply of cotton will, through the channel of the Mississippi, be more direct, safe and easy, than by sea, to towns on the Atlantic border. For all these operations there is abundant water-power in suitable locations.

For the construction of steamboats and every variety of lake craft, the western coast of Lake Michigan is eminently adapted; and it may be reasonably anticipated that a large share of the ship and boat-building for these inland waters will be done in the ports on that shore. The iron and lumber of Northwestern Wisconsin will attract to that quarter much of the boat-building for the Mississippi and its branches.

Nor is it to be presumed that Wisconsin will be long tributary to Buffalo or Pittsburgh for its engines, whether for the steamer, the locomotive or the mill. No point on the lakes presents more advantages than Milwaukee for foundries, for castings and machinery of every description.

All these, and the thousand unenumerated arts which go to constitute the social maturity of a state, will be hospitably entertained, and meet an early development in Wisconsin.

**TRADE.**—Bordered on the east and the west, throughout its entire length, by Lake Michigan on the one hand, and by the Mississippi on the other, every portion of the state has easy access to the ocean, and a complete command of the eastern and southern markets—an advantage which will be appreciated by those who are acquainted with the mutations, as well as the fixed laws of trade.

On the Michigan side have sprung up the towns, Milwaukee, Racine, Kenosha, Ozaukee, Manitowoc, Sheboygan and Green Bay, all flourishing and promising.

The growth of Milwaukee, like that of the state of which it is the commer-



cial mart, has been unexampled in the history of American cities. Scarcely visited by the white man in 1835, it has now, (1852,) a population of twenty-five thousand souls.

On the Mississippi border, the elements of wealth, bountiful as nature has been, have scarcely begun to be developed; and the question is still open, as to the position of its principal commercial mart. The more prominent points at present are Potosi, Prairie du Chien, Prairie La Crosse, and Willow River.

Of the interior towns, there are in the lead district, Mineral Point and Platteville; in the basin of the Fox and Lower Wisconsin, Fort Winnebago, Oshkosh, Fond du Lac and Menasha. On the banks of the Rock, Watertown, Janesville and Beloit. Between the Rock and Lake Michigan, Whitewater and Waukesha.

Madison, the capital of the state, the seat of justice of Dane county, and the seat of the university, is beautifully located in the basin of the Four Lakes, midway between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi.

Janesville, the most populous of the interior towns, is the seat of the state institution for the education of the blind.

The population of the villages of the interior above enumerated, ranges from twelve hundred to four thousand each. The list of towns might be greatly enlarged, did it fall within the scope of this article to do more than to present to the emigrant a general view of the natural capabilities and the present aspects of Wisconsin.

All around is in rapid, though unequal progression, and the town unenumerated to-day, may take its place in the first class to-morrow.

**INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.**—Plank roads are in process of construction, connecting the leading towns of the interior with each other, and all with the Lake and the River. Most of the towns on Lake Michigan are penetrating the interior with these facilities of trade and intercourse, to the mutual advantage of themselves and the country.

Of the several rail-roads projected and chartered, most of which are destined to completion at an early day, two—the "Milwaukee and Mississippi," and the "Rock River Valley" roads, are already under progress.

Cars are already running over the track of the former, from Milwaukee to Eagle Prairie, nearly forty miles. It will be finished to Rock River this season, and to Wisconsin during the summer of 1853. Another year will carry it through to the Mississippi. The track is laid with heavy T rail, and the road, with all its appurtenances, will be a work of the first class. This road will pass through Madison, the capital of the state, and terminate at or near the mouth of the Wisconsin.

The Rock River Valley road, connecting Fond du Lac with Janesville, and to be ultimately extended to Chicago, has been commenced simultaneously at Fond du Lac and Janesville. Several miles have been graded, and are nearly ready for the rail.

A road has been chartered to run from Fort Winnebago, through Madison and Janesville, to Beloit; there to connect with a branch from the Chicago and Galena road; thus furnishing a continuous route from the valley of the Fox and Wisconsin, through the capital of the state to Chicago. This route is attracting the attention of capitalists; and the business of the country demands and will effect the early construction of the road, by means of which a continuous line of rail-road travel to the Atlantic will be secured to Central Wisconsin.

The lake-shore road, from Milwaukee, through Racine and Kenosha, to Chicago, is an enterprise of general interest, and the construction of it cannot be long deferred.

Other rail-roads, to intersect the state in various directions, either new routes or extensions of old ones, are projected. Some of these doubtless will be carried through, though the period of their completion is more distant than that of those above named.

The state is now in the administration of a large trust fund, derived from the sales of lands, granted by Congress, for the construction of a steamboat communication from Green Bay to the Mississippi, along the bed of the Fox and Wisconsin rivers. This great work when completed is destined to form an important and valuable water communication between the basin of the St. Lawrence and the great valley of the Mississippi. Once completed, heavy freight between St. Louis and New-York will inevitably seek this channel, in prefer-

ence to that by the Illinois and Michigan canal, as now it seeks the latter in preference to the eastern routes.

This great work, furnishing the most capacious outlet from our MEDITERRANEAN RIVER, into our inland seas, and thence through the enlarged Erie canal and the Hudson, into the Atlantic, will be completed at no very distant day.

The improvement of the harbors on lake Michigan is imperiously demanded at the hands of the general government, and in the existing condition of the treasury cannot be longer delayed. And manifestly no object of expenditure could be more eminently national than the improvement of the outlet of Lake Superior, affording to the ordinary lake navigation free access to the copper region of northern Michigan and Wisconsin.

In connection with the subject of works of general utility, it remains only to say, that the telegraphic wires made early entry into Wisconsin. The line from Chicago to Milwaukee, and thence to Madison and Galena, has been for some years in operation. A network of wires now overspreads the state, and all the larger towns are brought into the circuit of instantaneous communication, and into enjoyment of the advantages of

this commerce of thought and feeling.

It need hardly be said, in conclusion, that these evidences of social advancement which meet the immigrant on his arrival in Wisconsin, and rapidly gather around the settler in his new home, contrast cheerfully and hopefully with the privation, the hardship, the toil and the danger which fifty years ago environed the pioneer in the forests of Ohio.

Indeed, looking at the fact that nature has prepared the soil of Wisconsin for the plow, and its herbage for the immediate sustentation of domestic animals, —contemplating the appliances of civilization, which art brings to the very doors of his cabin—he will not doubt—as in truth he need not—that twenty years will do for Wisconsin what fifty years have barely sufficed to do for Ohio; that in all that goes to constitute a healthy and refined civilization, Wisconsin is destined to a more rapid development and an earlier maturity than has heretofore marked the history of states under the most favorable conditions.

These views are not extravagant. They are conclusions fully warranted by the premises. The predictions of to-day will be sober history in 1872.

#### ART. VII.—THE LA PLATA AND THE PARANA—PARAGUAY.

[It is understood that our Government have negotiated a treaty for the opening of the Paraguay, Parana, and Uruguay rivers. The opening of such a field to American commerce must constitute a new and marked era in our progress. In order to form a clear conception of the matter, we insert a paper, read by E. A. Hopkins, Esq., Consul to Paraguay, at a late meeting of the New-York Statistical Society, of which the Hon. Geo. Bancroft is President, and Henry Grinnell and Dr. Hawkes, Vice-Presidents.]

The vast territory, formerly known by the appellation of Paraguay, comprised all that portion of South America which was bounded on the north by the northern frontier of the provinces of Santa Cruz de la Sierra, and Chareas, in 16° south latitude; on the south by the Straits of Magellan; by Brazil on the east; and by Chili and Peru on the west. But the country now distinguished by that name, is entirely contained within the shores of the Paraguay and Paraná rivers, from an undefined boundary with Brazil, in about 17° south latitude, to their junction 27° south latitude. The maps of these regions are manifestly incorrect in comparison with

those of the better-known portions of the world; still they are sufficient to give the student a correct geographical idea of the sources and channels of these noble rivers.

The Rio de la Plata is formed by the confluence of the Uruguay with the Paraná; and, from thence to the ocean, it is remarkable for its great breadth and shallow waters, and should properly be considered as an estuary of the sea.

The river Paraná rises in the western slope of the highlands near the seaboard, northwestwardly of Rio de Janeiro; and flowing westerly and southwesterly to its junction with the Paraguay, continues a southerly and south-

easterly course to the ocean: in this course, through sixteen degrees of latitude and as many of longitude, its navigation is only interrupted in one place, at latitude  $23^{\circ} 40'$ . Here the river flows for thirty-six leagues through a narrow gorge, which it has burst through the chain of mountains running from the province of San Paulo in Brazil, westward, till they are lost before reaching the Cordilleras. Probably no living white man has ever seen these extraordinary rapids. They were described in 1808, by D. Felix d'Azara, from hearsay, because, owing to domestic dissensions, barbarism has greatly encroached upon the frontiers originally conquered from the aborigines by the Spaniards.

Immediately above these rapids the river is 12,600 feet wide; but this enormous width is suddenly reduced to a single channel of 180 feet wide, down which the whole mass of water is precipitated with tremendous fury. The water falls on an inclined plane of fifty degrees, forming an immediate descent of about fifty-eight feet, and the noise is heard for eighteen miles. Señor d'Azara is of the opinion, that next to Niagara this is the most remarkable cataract in the world, from its extent and the amount of its waters.

Both below and above this cataract numerous tributaries, many of them larger than the largest rivers of Europe, send their waters to swell its gigantic flood. But the largest and most important of them all is the river Paraguay, which empties into the Paraná at  $27^{\circ} 20'$  south latitude. This river is undoubtedly the most perfect, for the purposes of navigation, of any in the known world; and its position in reference to different countries is of the utmost importance. Its first sources are in  $13^{\circ}$  south latitude and  $12^{\circ}$  longitude west from Rio de Janeiro. From thence it increases rapidly and majestically. In fact, its primitive fountains are so plentiful both in number and in water, that in a very short distance from them it is already fully navigable. Its bed, spotted with gold and brilliants, indicates that it is to be the great channel of the immense riches of South America.

On the east lies the rich Brazilian province of Matto Grosso, whose capital, Cuyabá, contains 30,000 inhabitants,

and is situated in latitude  $15^{\circ} 36'$ , upon the banks of the San Lorenzo, a navigable tributary of the Paraguay. The city is surrounded by agricultural establishments, well stocked with cattle of enormous size, and by mines of gold and diamonds. The population of this province is estimated at 150,000 souls.

On the west, descending, we meet with the three most populous provinces of Bolivia, Mojos, Santa Cruz de la Sierra, and Chiquitos, from whence the celebrated Peruvian bark is chiefly procured. From thence, it is at present carried on mules westward, over the Andes, and exported from Cobija, the only seaport possessed by Bolivia, and finally finds its way to our shores, by doubling Cape Horn.

Floating farther down, we meet with the river Jauru, which is navigable up as far as the heart of the province of Chiquitos; and still farther down, in latitude  $23^{\circ}$ , the river Verde. From thence, on the western bank, down to the city of Santa Fé, on the Paraná, all is a primitive wilderness, inhabited by the aboriginal savages. But we meet, in this part of our course, two magnificent rivers, which are of the utmost importance. They are the Pilcomayo and the Bermejo, both navigable; and the valleys of both are thickly populated by the descendants of the white man, the lands along their banks being of unsurpassed value in production. The Pilcomayo rises on the eastern slope of the Andes, near the silver mines of Potosi, in Bolivia; and flowing southeastwardly, near Chuquisaca, the capital of Bolivia, enters into the Paraguay three leagues south of the city of Asunción, the capital of Paraguay. The Bermejo takes its rise also from the eastern slope of the Andes, and, flowing through the populous provinces of Salta, Jujui, Catamarca, and San Juan, also empties into the Paraguay, in  $27^{\circ}$  S. lat., opposite the commercial port of Villa del Pilar, and near the embouchure of the Paraná. The voyages of discovery on the Pilcomayo and Bermejo, accomplished by the Señores Cornejo, Espinola, and Soria, demonstrate on every page the ecstatic enthusiasm of their authors at the richness and beauty of the country on their banks, and fully prove that the regions through which they flow are among the most beneficent gifts of Providence to man. In the year 1820, com-

panies were formed for the purpose of introducing European emigration into those regions, and several useful industrial establishments were set in operation for the manufacture of a very superior indigo. But civil wars, upon which I shall touch by and by, destroyed all.

Descending the Paraguay from the river San Lorenzo, on the eastward, we find constantly an uninterrupted line of white population. In Paraguay itself, the population amounts to 1,200,000 souls; and the country is intersected by many rivers, all more or less navigable; that is to say, from ten to fifty leagues. The river Tibicuari is the most important. It was fully explored in 1785, by D'Azara, as well as last year, by myself; and is navigable for steamboats of light draught for eighty leagues. Its banks are thickly populated throughout its whole extent. Descending still towards the ocean, we find the eastern shores of the Parana lined with thirty-eight cities, towns, and villages; and in the provinces of Corrientes and Entre-Rios, a population of a hundred and fifty thousand souls. A rough calculation, according to the best authorities extant, would place the extent of river navigation within Cape St. Mary at not less than ten thousand miles, all of which, in a state of nature, is unobstructed by any impediment to steamboats. Upon the banks of these streams is found a population of 3,000,000, entirely dependent upon this navigation for their imports and exports.

**HISTORICAL SKETCH OF PARAGUAY.**—Yet it will be asked, "How is it that all this has just been found out?" or, rather, "Why have these unexampled advantages been hitherto closed from our energies?" The story is one of dark crime. Its cause is simple, when explained. Two extraordinary characters will be found to be the chief impediments: Rosas, the dictator of Buenos Aires, and Francia, the tyrant of Paraguay. Whilst at the same time our own government has heavy sins of omission to answer for, that of England remains misrepresented by a dilatory and inexplicable policy; and that of France suffers under grave imputations of an ill-timed generosity, biased and rendered fruitless by English competition and her own internal revolutions. All these causes have combined in producing the same result; an immunity on the part

of barbarous tyrants to oppress and destroy, and, as a necessary consequence, an increasing debility and want of confidence in all commercial transactions in these countries.

The dismemberment of the provinces of La Plata took place at the close of the year 1813. It began with Paraguay; but, strictly speaking, she could at no time be said to have formed a portion of the "United Provinces," as created by the patriots. She never joined in any confederacy with them, but at once, in 1811, established on the ruins of the Spanish power an independent government of her own. This fact demands especial attention, as the basis of her subsequent history. The truth is, that Paraguay secured her independence from a colonial vassalage more by the advantages of isolated geographical position, than by any exertions on the part of her inhabitants. This same geographical position has also been one cause of the terrible tyranny to which she was subjected under the dictator Francia; and, although in that instance, it may have operated in favor of her worst internal enemy, yet it must always be a powerful safeguard against the risk of foreign domination.

Dr. Francia began his political career as secretary to the Revolutionary Junta, in 1811. In 1814, we find him terminating his consular career, and elected dictator for three years. But to secure this election, even by his own creatures, he was compelled, in imitation of other great usurpers in the history of the world, to order out his guards and surround the church where his congress met, by way of a gentle hint that he was to be obeyed. From this time he does not seem to have deemed a re-election necessary; but he fortified his position by a system of espionage, which he constantly extended and ramified, and by which he distracted and alarmed every family in Asunción.<sup>1</sup> He encouraged all the lower classes to look to him for favor and advancement, and sowed discord and jealousies among the better portion of the community, by every surreptitious means in his power.

From this time until his death, which took place on the 23d of September, 1840, he adopted, as his established principle, perfect non-intercourse with all the world; and his government became, with each day that his miserable life was prolonged, only the more despotic,



and the more of a curse upon his country. Churches were robbed to pay the hirelings of his nefarious will; religious sanctuaries were desecrated; the priesthood were imprisoned; and, unmarried himself, he destroyed by forbidding the matrimonial tie. Immorality stalked abroad in the rays of the noonday sun.

The city of Asunción became shrouded in gloom. The houses—with doors and windows always closed, business suspended, and no sound of domestic comfort or social hilarity to dispel the awful stillness caused by the darkness of despair—seemed only to contain the contemplated victims of the *Supremo*. Robertson says that, ten years before his death, "the prisons were groaning with their inmates; commerce was paralyzed; vessels were rotting on the river banks; produce going to decay in the warehouses; and the insolence of his soldiers was systematically encouraged, as the best means of striking terror into the hearts of the crouching and insulted citizens; distrust and fear pervaded every habitation; the nearest friends and relations were afraid of each other; despondency and despair were written upon every countenance you met; and the only laughter heard in the city was that of Francia's soldiers over their revels in the barracks, or their exultation over the affronts offered to unoffending citizens in the streets."

At length, as full of years as of crimes, he expired at the age of eighty-two—one of the few tyrants who have quietly died in their beds at a good old age, and in the plenitude of their power. He left his country impoverished of its precious metals; not a dollar in the treasury; and not a public or private paper of his administration unburned. For the reputation of the human family, Francia should be considered as insane during the latter years of his life; "for," as Mackintosh expresses it "the subtle and shifting transformations of wild passion into maniacal disease, the return of the maniac to the scarcely more healthy state of stupid anger, and the character to be given to acts done by him when near the varying frontier which separates lunacy from malignity, are matters which have defied all the experience and sagacity in the world."

After the death of Francia, a popular congress elected, again two consuls to serve for two years; a general amnesty

was declared; public and private confidence was restored; the people again gave utterance to their thoughts and feelings without fear or apprehension, and the stilled and stagnant nation-heart throbbed full and free, and sent forth shouts of joy in the happy security of freedom. The system of non-intercourse with the world was abandoned. A gradual distribution of the soldiery took place; and they soon lost the feverish impulses of their military character, in the peaceful occupations of the citizen.

The first duties of the consuls were to declare the nation free and open to foreigners and commerce, and to make such regulations with their neighbors of Brazil and Buenos-Ayres as would insure the recognition of the independence of their nation. This was imperatively necessary, to secure an egress to the ocean by way of the Paraná river, their natural and only commercial highway to the outer world. To this end they sent a commissioner to Buenos-Aires, in 1842. This gentleman was also charged with an application to our government, to recognize the independence of Paraguay, and proceed thereafter with such measures as would naturally follow. This was the first request of the kind ever made by the Paraguayan government to any independent power beyond the confines of South America; and I beg your especial attention to the fact, because it is my design to point out, by and by, the danger which the neglect of our government must incur, of driving this important and rising republic into the arms of England and France, if it is by long delay compelled to despair of our friendship and sympathy.

We have sufficiently shown how Dr. Francia shut up his own country, and also deprived the northern countries, Brazil and Bolivia, of all transit to the ocean. It should be recollected, moreover, that he established his power whilst the war for independence was still raging in the neighboring states; and also that Brazil may be said to have come into existence but yesterday, her declaration being made in 1823, subsequent to those of the Spanish-American countries.

But Francia having died in 1840, and the government and its principles having been then changed in Paraguay, we have now to consider the reason why she has still remained virtually in the

same situation, for the last eleven years. For the explanation we must look to the dictator of Buenos-Aires, the successor to the policy and to the crimes of the dictator of Paraguay, in the person of General D. Juan Manuel de Rosas.

The domestic struggle which has agitated the countries of the Rio de la Plata for the last twenty-five years, took its origin in that great and universal principle which has constantly agitated mankind since the first organization of society,—the struggle between the progressive and conservative elements which characterize the natures of different men; between the principles of preservation and improvement, on the right balance of which the quiet and well-being of society are suspended, often by too slender a thread. On the part of the Nomadic Gauchos of the pampas in the lower parts of South America, the principle of conservatism has taken the form of opposition to European emigration and civilization. It is the barbarism of the pampas, against the enlightenment of the cities; or, as an Argentine writer has quaintly expressed it, "the jacket against the long-tailed coat;" these two garments, in a manner similar to that in which we adopt popular political emblems, having become the distinctive representatives of two sides of the question.

After alternate attempts to organize the country, those parties took the names of Unitarians and Federalists. The Unitarians, or progressive party, desiring a centralized form of government; and the Federalists, the friends of barbarism, a confederation. From discussion they soon came to blows; and after many reciprocal victories and defeats, the city of Buenos Aires was taken by the Gauchos of the pampas, and Rosas, their leader, was finally installed in the government, in 1835, with dictatorial and irresponsible power. This power he has cemented by the usual means, and with the usual success; for brute force in him who commands, and servility and hypocrisy in him who obeys, travel generally with parallel strides.

This man is charged with having founded clubs of licensed murderers, who assassinated and poisoned, one by one, his chief competitors, or drove them from the country. Certain it is, that the country over which Rosas has ruled so long has decreased in population; towns

and cities are in ruins, public archives mutilated, and the liberty of the press but a delusive fancy; and public schools, colleges, and hospitals are all gone, robbed, annihilated. He has carried on this exterminating war without any strong or well-combined effort, but with that hard and haughty obstinacy which destroyed in men's hearts affection as well as hope. A calculator cold as the womb of a snake, he is the imitator of Francia. A Machiavelli in policy,—as the Duke of Alba said when leaving Holland, so will Rosas say in this present hour of his tribulation, "all is lost from too much lenity."

It is useless to talk about the necessity of governing the Argentine people, or any other portion of the human family, in this manner; for a twelve years' knowledge of all parties among this people, and six years of personal acquaintance with Rosas and with all their prominent men, have taught me the contrary. Nor are these charges against Rosas false, or capable of extenuation, as he has so constantly said and published; for the eighteen years of his rule have brought the decimated Argentine nation, as one of themselves expresses it, almost to the condition of brutes. "They eat, sleep, keep silence, laugh if they can, and wait tranquilly, that in twenty years more their sons may walk on four feet." And it is certain that even Rosas himself has never pretended to charge similar crimes upon his enemies; and I assert, from my own knowledge and the documentary evidence in my possession, that they have never committed them.

I have dwelt somewhat upon the conduct of Gen. Rosas, by way of preparation for the concluding part of my paper. I shall there show the importance of the present movement throughout eastern South America, and shall be enabled to prove to you its character, and satisfy you as to the degree of confidence which may be placed in its professions and its ultimate results.

Under a system of government such as I have described, it may well be supposed that a permanent peace could never be established. The Unitarian party, like the caged bird, has constantly exerted itself to the utmost to open its wings; and at each attempt it has only lacerated itself afresh against the iron bars of its prison. Yet, notwithstanding its sufferings, it brought Gen. Rosas, in

1840, and again in 1845, to the brink of destruction, on both which occasions he owed his safety to England and France.

The reception by Rosas of the Paraguayan application for recognition may well be imagined. The application has been refused, under frivolous and false pretexts, from that day to this; and Paraguay itself has been blockaded by paper edicts, against which it had no resource. For so long as Rosas, by means of his minions, governed the provinces of Corrientes and Entre-Rios, to the northward of the Paraná, he controlled the seven hundred miles of its navigation, in the most absolute manner; and Paraguay, deprived of all resources from without, and incapable of creating them within, has been obliged to keep as quiet as a lamb, whilst the U. S. Government, listening to the false representations of Rosas, has never, to this day, answered favorably the application of Paraguay for recognition. Thus Rosas, though always threatening to attack Paraguay, has never dared to do it; but, from its geographical position, he has made it pass eleven years more of isolation from the world.

Furthermore, Rosas has been the constant obstacle to all advancement in his own country. He has never allowed any steam-vessel to ascend the Paraná to Corrientes, nor has he ever given a favorable answer to the numerous propositions for exclusive rights to steam navigation which have been made to him, from time to time, and by individuals of different nations; for his power, founded upon those principles of barbarism which we have described, shuns the light of civilization and commercial concourse, and can only be upheld by the darkness of the tenth century.

Therefore the navigation of these magnificent avenues which intersect South America in all directions, has been confined to small boats and schooners, never exceeding two hundred tons, and generally of seventy or eighty tons burthen; the Paraguayan never descending, and the Argentine flag never ascending, beyond the city of Corrientes. The only communication which, during my last two years' residence in Paraguay, we were permitted to have with the outer world, consisted of a monthly mail, carried by an Indian scout over the province of Corrientes, from San Borja, on the banks of the Uruguay, to

Candelaria, on the Paraná. It is evident to the most superficial observer, that a state of things like this cannot last for ever, and that men's minds in those countries must be brought gradually to understand their own interests. But it has taken them a long time to learn that they must rely upon themselves, and cast aside all hopes from English intervention or French generosity, or American indifference. Nine years have thus been lost; and hopes have been excited and deferred, during this time, by seven different ministers plenipotentiary from the English and French governments, who have disgraced the character of those two powerful nations, and at last driven men to move and think for themselves. Thus tyranny, cruelty, and insatiable ambition have again and again shown themselves ignorant of the laws which limit their destructive power. Gen. Rosas, after having thoroughly conquered his domestic enemies, should then have remained quiet within his own borders, and not have interfered with the domestic affairs of his neighbors. Whereas, he has caused or upheld civil war in Bolivia, Brazil, and the Banda-Oriental; and, while constantly intriguing in Chili also, has hoped at the same time to consume Paraguay by a gradual atrophy.

As soon as it was fully understood throughout South America that the French President, under British influence, wished to abandon the city of Monte-Video to the power of Gen. Oribe, the lieutenant of Rosas, the Brazilian Cabinet began to look about amongst her neighbors, to unite them all in one league against the aggressions of Rosas, and to secure, for all concerned, the navigation of the rivers on firm and equal conditions. The first treaty was made in March last, with Paraguay; almost at the same time Monte-Video and the provinces of Corrientes and Entre-Rios all entered into the league, and they are bound to furnish, each and all, their quota of troops, and not to lay down their arms until the question of the navigation of the rivers is settled for ever. It is a movement of civilization, a natural and irresistible impulse of the human race in South America, against a retrograde and barbarous enemy of his kind.

It is to these allied states that we look for final success. The object could have been accomplished at any time,

for Rosas has never been strong against foreign attacks. But the difficulty has been to unite interests, which, though common, were spread over such an immense extent of country, which was as yet almost without any intercommunication. This combination against Gen. Rosas has at length been effected with the most perfect success, and has thus far conquered all his partizans without firing a shot. Its character is clearly on the side of progress, civilization, and above all, humanity; for, previous to this movement, lenity towards competitors, and mercy towards dreaded offenders, were undiscovered virtues.

At the present moment,\* Rosas is without money, allies, or troops; and a universal defection of all in whom he has placed confidence is only the natural consequence of his cruel system. The allies against him, backed by the steam navy of Brazil, are now invading his own territory; and Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay, Corrientes, Entre-Rios, and the Banda-Oriental, for the first time since their existence as states, understand the vital necessity of prompt action. The war has ceased—or, rather, never existed—against the combined forces to the northward and eastward of the Paraná; and those who are about to invade the province of Buenos-Aires represent nearly ten millions of men; whilst the whole Argentine Republic, supposing that all parties were faithful to Rosas, cannot count more than seven or eight hundred thousand souls.

The political condition, therefore, of Paraguay, Brazil, Corrientes, Entre-Rios, and Monte-Video, is one worthy of our utmost attention, sympathy, and respectful regard. They have published their intentions and determinations, which are in entire accord with the most humane principles; and their actions have been perfectly consistent with their professions. They have invited foreigners, with their capital and commerce, published decrees regulating tariffs and custom-houses, and offered special rewards and exclusive rights for the introduction of steam, and all useful machines and implements of every kind, the produce of the industry of other countries.

**PRESENT CONDITION OF PARAGUAY.**—In reference to the present condition of these countries, it may well be imagin-

ed that there is room for great improvement. Yet if we speak of the elements to improve upon, it would be difficult to imagine any part of the world where they exist in greater or more spontaneous profusion. Bolivia, Brazil, and Paraguay, are the agricultural regions which must chiefly nourish the richest commerce, while the regions nearer the Atlantic Ocean yield all the productions of an enormous extent of pastoral countries. It is in the higher lands, up the rivers, where European emigration must find a home, and a field for congenial pursuits, which would not interfere with those of the native inhabitants. The knowledge which prevails among them about agriculture, is meagre in the extreme; and although in Paraguay they are principally an agricultural people, they know very little of the science. They are in the greatest want, too, of all our agricultural implements; upon each one of which, the introducer would receive a patent for ten years.

**PRODUCTIONS OF THE COUNTRY.**—Beginning with the head waters of the river Paraguay, we find the productions upon the Brazilian side to be, gold and precious stones, sugar, molasses, hides of extraordinary size, hair, tallow, wax, deer and tiger skins, with rice, corn, and the different manufactures of the mandioc root; in Bolivia, gold and precious stones, silver, coffee—considered by good judges to be equal to Mocha—and Peruvian bark. Though, undoubtedly, we could draw from these two countries many other productions of tropical America, yet it is in Paraguay that we find the greatest wealth of all these valleys.

Of this country and its commercial resources I can speak with the greatest certainty, from my own personal knowledge. Almost divided by the Tropic of Capricorn, its surface is like a chess-board, checkered here and there with beautiful pastures and magnificent forests. Unlike all other lands with which I am acquainted, it seems destined especially for the habitation of man. Here, in the eastern portion of our own land, the first settlers found the whole country covered with woods; west of the Mississippi the other extreme exists, in the vast extent of prairie destitute of timber. On the north of Brazil, in a similar manner are unbroken forests; in its southern parts, and throughout the Banda-Oriental, Entre-Rios, Corrientes, and the Argen-

\* This was written in January, 1832.



tine Republic, we find continuous pampas, like our prairies, in many instances, without bearing the necessary fuel even for household purposes. Not so in Paraguay, where, added to a sufficiency for building fleets of a thousand steamers, its forests teem with every description of ornamental and useful woods.

The vegetable kingdom of Paraguay presents the richest attractions, not merely to the professional botanist, but to that important class which is devoted to mercantile enterprise. The medicinal herbs which abound in the greatest profusion are rhubarb, sarsaparilla, jalap, bryonia indica, sassafras, holywood, dragons' blood, balsam of copaiba, nux vomica, liquorice, and ginger. Of dye-stuffs, too, there is an immense variety. The cochineal, which is indeed an insect, but requiring for its food a species of the cactus plant; two distinct kinds of indigo; vegetable vermillion; saffron; golden rod; with other plants, producing all the tints of dark red, black, and green. Many of the forest trees yield valuable gums, not yet familiar to commerce or medicine; and they comprise some of the most delicious perfumes and incense that can be imagined. Others again are like amber, hard, brittle, and insoluble in water. Some cedars yield a gum equal to gum Arabic; others, a natural glue, which, when once dried, is unaffected by wet or dampness. The *seringa*, or rubber tree, the product of which is now almost a monopoly in Para, and also the *palo santo*, which produces the gum guaiacum, crowd the forests, ready to give up their riches to the first comer; and the sweet-flavored vanilla modestly flourishes, as if inviting the hand of man.

Upon the hills, the celebrated yerba maté, which is the exclusive beverage of one-half of South America, has only to be gathered. Its preparation is in an exceedingly crude state, and could be beneficially improved by employing some of our corn-mills; and probably its use could be introduced into this country with advantage.

Upon the fertile alluvial banks of so many large streams, sugar-cane, cotton, tobacco, of a superior quality, rice, mandioca, Indian corn, and a thousand other productions, vegetate with profusion; whilst seven varieties of the bamboo line the river banks and dot the frequent lakes, with islets of touching beauty. On the plains, quantities of hides, hair, horns,

bones, tallow, &c., are lost for want of transportation. If we go to the forests, we find two or three kinds of hemp, vast quantities of wax, the *Nux saponica*, or soap-nut, the cocoa, and vegetable oils in abundance, with two kinds of wild cotton, admirably adapted for the manufacture of paper. But it is with the forest trees of Paraguay that I love most to dwell. Giants! there they are, vast and noble in their aspect, and able, as it were, to utter for themselves the sublime music of the wilderness. Sixty varieties, already known, furnish timber of all kinds, and colors and degrees of durability, elasticity, and buoyancy. I have seen timbers of the Lapacho that have supported the roofs of houses in Buenos Aires for more than two hundred years. They are now as sound as ever, and, to all appearance, capable of performing the same service to the end of the world. A doorsill of the same wood, half-imbedded in the ground, and marked "1632," belonged to the front door of the house which I inhabited in the city of Asunción. Upon the closest inspection, it was in a state of perfect preservation. Several other woods of this same variety are so heavy as to sink in water, and all, while difficult to burn in houses, form, under the force of a strong draught, a fire almost equal to stone-coal in intensity. Another tree, the *Seibo*, when green, is spongy and soft as cork, and can be cut like an apple; but when dry, it is so hard as almost to defy the action of steel. Again, we have the *Palo de vivora*, or snake-tree, whose leaves are an infallible cure for the poisonous bites of serpents. The *Palo de leche*, or milk-tree, may be called a vegetable cow; and the *Palo de borracho*, or drunken-tree, a vegetable distillery. The *igica* resin is found at the roots of trees under ground, and is a natural pitch, ready prepared to pay the seams of vessels.

But I have probably said enough on this part of my subject. My object has been to exhibit a slight sketch of the great wealth of Paraguay; a country to which the prophetic eye of the great founder of the Jesuits was turned, only nine years after the issue of the Papal bull which established the order, and where his followers enjoyed, for one hundred and eighty-six years, the greatest power and wealth which it has ever been their portion to possess at any time, or in any part of the world. To this end I have

mentioned roots, gums, woods, and vegetables enough. We have found the forests spontaneously producing every thing necessary for the comfort and luxury of mankind, from the beautiful cotton-tree that affords him clothing, to the colors which suit his fancy as a dye; and from the woods that furnish his ship and house, or ornament his *escritoire*, to the herb that cures his sickness, or the incense that delights his olfactories. It is only necessary to add, that the climate is favorable to all the useful grains and table vegetables, with delicious fruits to support the frame and gratify the palate.

**POPULATION AND CHARACTER OF PARAGUAY.**—Of the *Anthropology* of Paraguay I have said nothing. Blumenbach himself would be puzzled to tell the original of some of the mongrel breeds to be found there. But the upper classes have ever been more regardful of their blood than in any part of Spanish or Portuguese America. They are brave, stout, and healthy, hospitable and simple-hearted in the ordinary relations of life, and exceedingly intelligent and keen in business affairs. Perfect confidence in the government and subordination to the laws, are two of their cardinal virtues; and security for life and property is the blessed consequence. Tyranny enough they have already suffered to have learned to escape its toils in future; and their chief desire is to learn those arts which may conduce to their comfort and happiness, and elevate their country to its proper position among the nations of the world. In return for that knowledge their commerce will bring to us much that we have never seen, and will cheapen, for our manufactures, what we already import from other parts of South America; while to the naturalist and the historian the most extensive fields of undeveloped richness and inexpressible beauty, will open at command.

As for the character of Carlos Antonio Lopez, the President of Paraguay, I must not quit his country without passing a just eulogium upon his talents and patriotism. For a man who has never passed the frontier of his country, he is really remarkable. He has been stained by no arbitrary bloodshed; and even under the circumstances which I described, of isolation from all the world, he has reformed and advanced his country in no ordinary degree. Its whole constitution, civil, political, and religious, is the work

of his hands; and his decrees for the furtherance of commerce and agriculture, show a spirit of enlightenment rarely exhibited under similar circumstances. However much remains to be done, he knows that it must be done slowly; that too rapid an improvement must stand upon an insecure basis, which may crumble away and leave but its ruins behind.

Pursuing our route from Paraguay down the river Paraná, we pass the provinces of Corrientes and Entre-Rios, pastoral regions, whose development has been retarded, or rather stopped, by the Dictator of Buenos-Aires. In subjecting them to such custom-house regulations as he wished; in forcing them to carry their produce to Buenos-Aires, and there to receive his worthless paper money in return, he has driven them to understand the exclusiveness of a system which, under the name of "Federal," he has made more despotically centralized than his worst opponent of the Unitarian party ever desired.

**OPENING FOR TRADE.**—Under a free navigation for these delightful regions, their exports must double within six months, and a new impulse be given to all their affairs.

The commercial tendencies of all this section of country lean toward the United States, for many reasons. In the first place, we are, for our numbers, beyond all comparison the greatest consuming people of the earth. Whilst commerce with us adds to their wealth and comfort, that of England, our only rival, drains from them their very life-blood. We sell on barter or exchange, and many times have to pay the difference in specie, whilst the English sell their manufactures for good paper on time, and when the hard money is paid, it is not long in leaving the country and becoming embalmed in the vaults of the Bank of England.

Again, we are undoubtedly better acquainted with the wants and the means of development of new countries, than the older nations of Europe. It is also certain, we presume, that our manufactures, machinery, and agricultural implements, are better adapted for the wants of nascent communities, where labor is excessively dear, than can be the case in the old world, where the overcrowded masses are struggling for employment, and for the right to exist.

Furthermore, these regions produce spontaneously many valuable articles of commerce, for which we are now almost exclusively dependent upon the British East-Indian possessions, paying for them such a price as the English choose to demand. It is for this reason that the British Government has regulated its policy so as to support the barbarous system of Rosas; whilst, at the same time, she has endeavored to make such treaties as would secure her the precedence, should he ever fall from power.

Again, all those productions of these valleys which European commerce requires, could be furnished to Europe by way of the United States, in less time, and consequently at less expense, than they can be by going direct, no matter whether we use steam or sailing vessels. But so long as England uses steam, and we use only sails, then we can communicate in less time (that is to say, once a month with Monte-Video and Buenos-Aires), by way of England, than direct from this city.

A study of the wind and current charts of my distinguished friend, Mr. Maury, of the National Observatory at Washington, as well as the statistics of voyages from the Rio de la Plata to New-York, and any point of Europe, will amply prove this assertion.

Then, again, all the productions of Bolivia which reach any Atlantic market, are obliged to be carried across the Andes on mules, and exported at Cobija, the only port which she possesses; and, doubling Cape Horn, at length they reach us, loaded with such expenses as almost completely kills any attempt of that fertile country to produce anything which may compete with similar productions in the commerce of the world.

Upon political grounds, also, I hope to convince you that the commercial tendencies of South America set strongly in our favor, though our government has much to do to make up for the faults of the past.

The world contains only three great commercial nations, one of which is rapidly being swallowed up by the other two. Two of these nations, England and France, have constantly interfered in the Rio de la Plata; and though from different motives, they have both contributed in producing one monotonous result: that of continuing a state of anarchy and

confusion, and creating a natural hatred and distrust of other governments. Yet, whilst the conduct of the British has produced a strong feeling against individuals of that nation, the conduct of the French has produced a strong sympathy for them, assisted by similarity in religion, language, and philosophy. The high-handed capture of the Falkland Islands by the British, and the English settlements in the Straits of Magellan; the singular manner in which England withdrew from the combined intervention against Rosas, as if striving to throw upon France the odium of its failure; the servility of her representatives in Buenos-Aires and Monte-Video, together with her loans of money to starving governments at an exorbitant interest,—all these things have ruined her hopes of commercial success, save when backed by the cannon of her fleets.

In the mean time, men's minds are convinced of the great mistake which was made in listening to the enticing words of Mr. Canning; and they are anxiously desiring to strengthen those bonds of commercial communication with us, long ago formed by Messrs. Clay, Monroe, and Adams, and afterwards so unfortunately neglected by their successor, General Jackson. They are awakening to the fact, that with us they have no political intrigues to fear, and that our commercial competition is most for their advantage; and that though we have pursued a timid, irresolute, and time-serving policy with General Rosas, we have never injured, save by sins of omission, any party or any man.

In fact, our only sources of complaint have been against General Rosas; and our complaints have been legitimate and just, although circumstances have held them in abeyance; whilst European attacks against him, always misrepresented in this country by his mendacious press, have produced among us a feeling of sympathy for the position of the man. He has refused to pay or arrange the American claims, which have been pending against Buenos-Aires ever since 1828. He has placed such a duty upon American flour as amounts to a prohibition; he has forbidden our vessels to carry passengers from Buenos-Aires; and he has constantly refused to make treaties with us, under pretence that he did not possess the requisite power of ratification.

Yet, in the face of all this, he has made and signed treaties with England and France; he has given to the British packets an exclusive right of carrying passengers from Buenos-Aires; and he has permitted those vessels to delay the delivery of their mails, except to interested parties, even for as long as three days after their arrival. At the same time, he has cajoled the American government, by throwing himself upon their generosity; he has procured the trial of Captain Voorhies, of the United States frigate *Congress*, and had him suspended for an act which was a noble vindication of our national honor against his arrogant extortions; and he has managed to prevent all attention being paid, by the American government or people, to the cause of Paraguay. This American sympathy has been the only one which has sustained him among the nations of the earth,—he, whose power, built upon constant war and agitation as an occupation for his Gaucho soldiers, has never known a moment's peace,—he is the one to whom we can trace, infallibly, all the difficulties of the last twenty years on the Rio de la Plata.

However, I trust that the time has come when these subjects will be better understood among us. They certainly will be, when our interests are more widely extended in those parts of the world. Then shall we feel that Paraguay—the richest of those countries in all that conduces to the comfort and happiness of mankind—is really the most powerful element in the affairs of the Rio de la Plata, from this time forward; and that, being the *element of order, and peace, and progress herself*, she will necessarily influence her neighbors for good, in no small degree.

There are still other considerations of the greatest weight connected with this subject, which I must be excused for touching upon with freedom. I am aware that, throughout our community, great reluctance is felt to place property of value in the hands of the Spanish race upon this continent; and precedents are not wanting to prove that reclamations, pending before our government on this score, have dragged their weary length along, oftentimes leaving the claimants nothing to live upon but the empty deceptions of hope. Pope Paul IV. is reported to have said that the Spanish race was “the dregs of the earth,—an infa-

mous *mélange* of the Jew and the Arab.” (*Lavallée Hist. des Français*, vol. ii., p. 340.) Yet it must be recollected that popes have not always spoken the truth; and, besides, what might have been true then, is not necessarily true now. Nations change through time and circumstances; and there are decided signs that the state of the Spanish race on the shores of the Plata is changing at the present moment. I confess myself a believer in the philosophical truths of history, which convince us that the universal laws of decay and reproduction, belong alike to individuals and to nations, as well as to the whole animate and inanimate creation besides. But, as yet, the unmistakable signs of decadency which belong to the old world, have no home among us of the new. The very necessities of mankind must fill up our boundless wastes sooner or later. As also in the lives of individuals, so in those of nations, crises occur over which man himself has no control. Now, Europe labors under the weight of the most terrible that has ever fallen to her lot since the creation of the world. Her oppressed millions will not all stand in hopeless anguish, whilst the New World opens to their longing gaze its countless acres for their occupation, and whilst its cheerful soil brings forth spontaneously all the wealth-bearing productions of every clime.

The movement of French, Italian, and German emigration towards the region of the La Plata, already considerable, must augment, for many reasons, in a far greater ratio than we have ever known it with us. The sympathetic feelings of affection and protection will take out there thousands whose parents, relations, or friends, have already emigrated; whilst the price of land is much less than in this country, and the sympathies of race, religion, customs and language, for two of the three above-mentioned nations, naturally lead them thither. This emigration, composed of the best elements, for our purposes, which European society contains, must only increase by each domestic convulsion or despotic encroachment; and I know, from facts that came to my knowledge in Paris, that large arrangements are already entered into for emigration during the coming season.

These emigrants will not, as many persons too hastily imagine, become elements of disorder in their new home;



for those portions of the New World furnish no incentives to anarchy, while they offer every reward for honest labor. Nor is it true that because they are often elements of anarchy at home, under the pressure of want and idleness, their conduct will be the same where no such pressure exists. On the contrary, I am satisfied that, as they have already preserved, so they will contribute to increase, the element of civilization in South America; and I am equally convinced that they must absorb, in a few generations, the two or three millions of natives, who, proud and disdainful, with few exceptions, refuse to learn from others, and have no idea of advancing themselves. Thus, under proper management, we may expect to see a new nation truly republican, rising up on the shores of the La Plata, within a few years, founded upon the *débris* of liberty in the Old World, and without containing in its elements the only plague-spot to be found upon our own incomparable body politic.

That the people and government of the United States may be properly represented in the future of these magnificent countries, now that they have the opportunity of so doing, they should move the *first and foremost* in the matter. The order of Providence seems to have constituted us the protector and teacher of the other parts of our hemisphere; and it is a duty which we have hitherto but poorly performed. Again, it is the evident policy of our government to protect all small states from the encroachments of their more powerful neighbors, *as far as they can do so by diplomatic action*; and the more especially, when they desire it themselves, as in the case of Paraguay and Monte-Video. In reference to this latter state, I have said nothing. But to make more evident still the great supineness of some of our past administrations, I will state that Monte-Video has always been the last refuge of civilization, and the only constant upholder of constitutional government on the shores of the La Plata. Yet, although such has been her character, as I am amply able to prove, she has never met with any notice or favor from us; but the contrary. I have now among my papers some records, procured from the files of the Oriental Legation at Paris during my late visit there, and which cannot be untrue. They are a correspondence, under date of December 14, 1841, be-

tween Senor Ellauri, the Oriental minister, and General Cass, our minister at Paris, in which the former, in accordance with special instructions and powers which he had received for that purpose, offers to make a treaty of friendship, commerce, and navigation with the United States. This, be it remarked, was in a time of profound peace for the Banda-Oriental, and whilst General Rosas was engaged in subduing the upper Argentine provinces. General Cass states his want of instructions; and applies to his government. His government—that is, the government of the United States—answers him, and he replies to the Oriental minister, under date of March 5th, 1842: "I have been instructed to inform you that, although the United States are desirous to extend and improve commercial and friendly relations with the governments of the Western Hemisphere, and to place them under the high sanction of conventional stipulations; yet, under existing circumstances, and particularly while war continues between the Argentine Republic and your Government, and while that region is in an unsettled and unquiet state, the moment does not seem favorable to the development of its resources, nor to the formation of new diplomatic relations with other countries. The President of the United States, therefore, thinks it necessary to defer, to a more favorable opportunity, the further expression of his amicable disposition towards the Oriental Republic, and the negotiations for the regulation of its intercourse with the United States."

In a letter to me, of October 30, 1851, Señor Ellauri says, "I ought to make you notice, a very especial circumstance it is, that the only nation with which my government has taken the initiative to invite them to celebrate treaties of friendship, commerce, and navigation, has been that of the United States; with all others, we ourselves have been the invited parties, even by England."

Thus, then, we have seen that the Banda-Oriental sought our connection in 1842; Paraguay, in 1843—*both of which states have been treated with complete indifference*. For this we owe them at least some reparation; and to call the attention and speculation of all persons to beautiful and fertile South America, it is only necessary for the government of the United States to give to these

countries that impulse which is the indispensable element of civilization and of Christianity. With such friendly aid as it can supply, a sudden metamorphosis will transform the face of these countries. The power of steam will reproduce upon their waters the wonderful results which have marked its introduction among ourselves, and which to our benighted brethren of South America appear but the phantasy of a dream. If we lead them to adopt those modes of commerce for which they have such unsurpassed yet unexplored advantages, we shall open to them a new era of grandeur and happiness, of which they cannot form as yet any adequate conception.

In four days a steamboat could run up from Monte-Video to Asunción, and in eight days to the interior of Bolivia and Brazil. A shorter time will carry the return voyager to the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, after having touched, in both trips, at the many cities and villages upon the banks, leaving in them the spirit of life and wealth, and through these the benefits of education and refinement.

The time has arrived when all things tend, in the old world and in the new, to the realization of these most magnificent projects; in a word, to the opening of an entire new world to our enterprise. Why let the opportunity slip from our grasp, to be certainly seized upon, in a few months, by our only rivals, the English?

The best commercial statistics fully prove what I advance. For, in 1842, when not half a dozen individuals in each port of the United States had a dollar invested in the Rio de la Plata, the American tonnage which had arrived in the port of Monte-Video for the seven previous years, amounted to 113,696 tons, and fell short of the British by only 57,586 tons. For the year 1842—a year of peace—the total of the imports and exports of Monte-Video, with only a small back country, and without any aid from Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay, Corrientes, or Entre-Rios, amounted to \$22,558,762; of which the Americans had the third share. Thus, if under circumstances of governmental abandonment and general want of confidence we did thus much, what ought we to do now?

I do not surpass probability when I say, that the appearance of an American river

steamboat in those waters would increase our exportations to these regions a million of dollars the first year, and that this amount would double every six months thereafter, for a considerable period of time. This boat would procure the exclusive right for the navigation of these waters, from Bolivia, Brazil, and Paraguay; and the company, during the existence of their monopoly, could control, in every respect, all imports and exports.

I have said that the attention of the English merchants is largely drawn to this important question. As far back as 1845, the South American merchants of that country petitioned the Queen to force open the navigation of the Paraná (in the same manner as their countrymen procured a trade with China); "because," said they, "in a few years its trade will be only second to that of your Majesty's East-Indian possessions."

They said well; for the southern provinces of the empire of Brazil, Paraguay and Bolivia, and the other territories watered by the tributaries of the La Plata, offer to a legitimate commercial ambition nearly nine hundred thousand miles square of virgin lands, very much more profitably situated for commercial intercourse with the globe than the Chinese empire, owing to their superior geographical, as well as social position. In China we are obliged to struggle against a traditional policy which repels the foreigner, and against a high industrial development which rejects almost all our manufactured goods, with the exception of such as come from the national mint; besides which, the Chinese are generally short-lived, and infanticide is common among them. In South America, on the contrary, we find a fresh population, ignorant of the words *economy*, *scarcity*, because they know not want. These people, the reverse of the Chinese, expect the wants as well as they demand the benefits which civilization brings in its train. Therefore we ought not, cannot remain deaf to the appeal which they make us. Shame should hinder us from permitting the English to be considered, on any part of our own continent, as the head of civilization and all progress rather than ourselves.

In vain has a third of a century passed since we conferred upon these people the blessings of national independence. In

vain have opposing interests labored for a long time to efface the remembrance of this our noble act. In vain have our own errors come in aid of those interests which are opposed to us. The name of Henry Clay, as the champion of South American independence, still survives among them. It is only necessary to give to this remembrance a proper tendency, and it will revivify and spread abroad; it will infuse itself into the ideas and the manners, into the material and moral wants of those people who love us, that we may become the law of their interests; for this is what their sympathies demand.

Contrast opportunities and feelings like these, with the proportionate dislike of the snares of monarchical influences, from which they have suffered so much. Consider, in addition, the hopeless debt and consequent oppression, in one form or another, under the apprehension of which all the nations of South America, except Paraguay and Chili, so heavily labor; and our view into the future, of what we ought to do and can do, becomes clear and distinct. The time for talking is over. If we do not wish to be distanced, anticipated, superseded, we must act, and act without delay.

If we follow on in the path thus open before us, emigration and steam will speedily call into action those sympathies of which I just now spoke. Incomparable instruments of peaceful revolution, they promise to these magnificent countries the most abundant development for the happiness of the human race. Under their vigorous impulse solitudes will be peopled, inertness will become action, and the earth will yield its fruits an hundred fold. The travels

and investigations of scientific men, the introduction of machinery and new means of labor, together with a new spirit of energy and enterprise, will bless all persons with new discoveries of unbounded usefulness, before unknown. Thus resting upon those solid foundations which alone can give a permanent existence to liberty, a new *terra firma* of prosperity and peace will rapidly loom up from among the sinking billows of discord and civil war, which have so long swept in all their fury over some of the fairest regions on the face of the earth.

In conclusion, I wish it to be distinctly understood, though I have made some forcible statements, and made therefrom my own deductions, that I do not desire to wound the prejudices or the partialities of any person whatever. I trust that I have spoken in accordance with the opportunities of information which I have enjoyed, and in conformity to the principles of human progress and humanity.

The American people seem to be very desirous at the present moment to extend the area of freedom. Some have gone to Cuba and the Sandwich Islands. Others would like to go to Hungary and even to Moscow, notwithstanding its bad reputation as a winter residence for an invading force. And it is only a little of this spirit, differently applied, which I have desired to see extend itself to South America.

NOTE.—Mr. Hopkins has used, throughout his memoir, the orthography of the language in which the different places therein mentioned have been named. His reasons for declining to anglicize proper names, in reference to geography, may probably be made the subject of a future paper before the Society.

#### ART. VIII.—COMMERCIAL GROWTH OF BOSTON.

WE have frequently referred in the pages of the Review to the rapid growth of Boston in all the elements of population and commercial power, and we condensed a great many of our statistics upon this subject into the volumes of Industrial Resources published by us last summer. In order that the subject may be brought down to date, we draw upon the reports of the Shipping List for many interesting particulars, in relation

to the commerce of the year which closed on the 1st January, 1853.

The business of the year, says the Shipping List, shows a good and healthy increase in nearly every department, and, on the whole, has been highly satisfactory. Cotton goods and boots and shoes, the leading articles of our manufacture, have been unusually active throughout the year, and the quantity taken for export and home consumption

largely exceeds that of any previous year. Our Canada neighbors find us so closely connected with them by railroads, and the means of communication so easy and rapid, that a larger number than usual have been induced to visit us, and have purchased freely of staple articles suited to their market; and, in return, we have consumed and exported a much larger amount of their produce. This branch of our trade promises well for the future. The exports to and the imports from the British Provinces indicate a very large and healthy increase. The California trade has been very active and prosperous, and attended with few or none of the disasters of previous years. A succession of splendid clipper ships have been promptly dispatched for that market throughout the year, with large and very valuable cargoes of produce and manufactured articles. The number of clearances will show at a glance the extent of our California trade:

	1852.	1851.	1850.	1849.
Ships.....	79	22	53	56
Barks.....	14	12	57	37
Brigs.....	5	1	31	41
Schooners.....	1	—	25	15
Total.....	98	35	166	151

Although the number of vessels is less than in 1850 and 1849, it should be remembered that, the past year, they were nearly all large clipper ships, from 1,000 to 2,500 tons burthen, while in 1850 and 1849 they were generally moderate sized vessels. Every other leading branch of our business has also equally increased during the year. Statements to the prejudice of our merchants, circulated south and west, have failed to divert or embarrass any of our trade. But, while our business men are thus successfully contending against attacks from abroad, and doing all in their power to promote the interests and prosperity of our city, it is to be regretted that they have to meet with unlooked-for obstacles at home. Our legislators have deemed it necessary to enact very stringent laws—heretofore looked upon as foreign to the purposes of legislation—having a tendency to interfere with and embarrass several branches of our manufacture and foreign trade, and materially injure the business of the city. The law known as the “Maine Liquor Law” has as yet been inoperative and its influence unfelt; but as there is a disposition to put

it fully in force the coming year, we feel that nearly all branches of our trade will suffer in consequence. It is certainly a new kind of legislation, when the legitimate business of a large number of respectable and upright citizens is interfered with, in order to try a doubtful experiment on the morals of a few erring ones. We hope, however, that our present legislature, while promoting the cause of temperance by all wholesome restraints and laws, will deem it their duty to repeal this unjust and therefore intemperate one.

The arrivals from foreign ports for ten years past have been as follows at Boston:

	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schs.	Total.
1852.....	226	332	840	1,450	2,864
1851.....	101	288	817	1,542	2,838
1850.....	180	269	846	1,553	2,828
1849.....	228	305	908	1,732	3,183
1848.....	245	310	902	1,640	3,101
1847.....	182	262	698	1,613	2,755
1846.....	146	213	531	1,162	2,052
1845.....	159	215	550	1,406	2,330
1844.....	134	217	607	1,231	2,199
1843.....	127	153	524	946	1,750

The foreign clearances for the same period have been as follows:

	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schs.	Total.
1852.....	188	350	839	1,486	2,863
1851.....	133	340	806	1,560	2,848
1850.....	100	266	798	1,447	2,671
1849.....	150	309	888	1,754	3,110
1848.....	159	315	887	1,449	2,810
1847.....	116	228	626	1,526	2,526
1846.....	95	199	480	1,214	1,981
1845.....	102	207	514	1,344	2,167
1844.....	92	203	520	1,166	1,981
1843.....	78	149	477	883	1,587

The coastwise arrivals, and the clearances, as far as known, as many are not entered at the custom-house, for a number of years, have been as follows:

	Arrivals.	Clearances.
1852.....	6,286	3,291
1851.....	6,334	3,181
1850.....	5,978	3,086
1849.....	6,199	3,174
1848.....	6,118	3,187
1847.....	7,125	3,198
1846.....	6,775	2,672
1845.....	5,631	3,054
1844.....	5,312	2,830
1843.....	4,944	2,497

COFFEE TRADE OF BOSTON.—The imports the last three years have been as follows:

	From	1852.	1851.	1850.
Batavia.....	bags & piculs	53,448	61,014	49,774
Hayti.....	bags	84,707	71,969	59,433
Rio Janeiro.....	“	22,490	13,343	3,452
Porto Cabello.....	“	3,320	6,212	3,589
Manilla.....	“	5,342	1,676	943
Other foreign ports.....	“	4,781	3,580	6,392
Coastwise.....	“	3,307	2,795	2,298
Total bags.....		177,205	162,368	125,881



The exports to foreign and coastwise ports have been as follows:

	Foreign.	Coastwise.
1852.....bags.....	35,388	70,759
1851....."	22,998	63,471
1850....."	23,536	51,574
1849....."	29,065	76,717
1848....."	45,827	58,489
1847....."	25,098	116,713

**COTTON TRADE OF BOSTON.**—The imports the past year have been as follows:

From New-Orleans.....bales.....	131,877
" Mobile....."	42,935
" Charleston....."	12,929
" Savannah....."	20,660
" Apalachicola....."	37,626
" Galveston....."	18,809
" Other places....."	6,320

Total 1852.....	281,166
" 1851.....	204,232
" 1850.....	155,076
" 1849.....	270,693
" 1848.....	239,958
" 1847.....	198,932
" 1846.....	193,549
" 1845.....	187,610
" 1844.....	175,529
" 1843.....	151,090

The exports from this port to foreign ports have been as follows:

1852.....bales.....	3,146
1851....."	2,217
1850....."	1,885
1849....."	4,308
1848....."	7,766
1847....."	6,477
1846....."	7,187

**DYEWOODS.**—St. Domingo logwood has been sold during the year at from \$11 a \$13 25 per ton, duty paid; sapan wood from \$30 a \$40; and Cuba fustic \$34 a \$39 per ton. The imports for three years have been as follows:

	1852.	1851.	1850.
Logwood.....tons.....	10,998	7,789	12,431
Fustic....."	463	675	1,466
Sapan wood.....pieces.....	12,360	4,693	15,530
Sapan wood.....tons.....	371	449	265

The exports for three years have been:

	1852.	1851.	1850.
Logwood.....tons.....	8,131	6,889	9,119
Sapan wood....."	277	171	186
Fustic....."	205	331	567

**DRY GOODS, DOMESTIC TRADE OF BOSTON.**—The exports have been as follows:

	Packages.	Value.
To East Indies.....	26,677	\$1,252,051 08
" South America.....	23,603	1,125,205 80
" Sandwich Islands.....	315	22,771 52
" Smyrna.....	1,279	77,676 84
" Gibraltar & a market.....	680	35,560 18
" Malta & a market.....	675	37,740 84
" Palermo.....	30	2,159 40
" Constantinople.....	45	3,119 52
" Rio Grande.....	712	36,649 00
" Buenos Ayres.....	1,200	60,110 26

	Packages.	Value.
To Rio la Plata, &c.....	782	36,904 11
" Rio Janeiro.....	1,026	64,181 25
" Pernambuco.....	103	4,923 58
" Africa.....	95	5,510 46
" Cape of Good Hope.....	553	28,631 27
" Fayal.....	68	3,156 28
" Pacific Ocean.....	28	1,660 24
" Honduras.....	582	32,194 03
" Porto Cabello.....	470	21,090 40
" St. Thomas.....	41	2,600 00
" Hayti.....	2,018	154,313 41
" Provinces.....	1,631	70,064 65
" Rio Hache.....	17	776 23
" Curacao.....	14	665 50
" Surinam.....	6	332 00
" San Juan.....	8	320 00
" Turk's Island.....	6	303 00
" Aspinwall.....	1	78 65
" Bermuda.....	3	167 00
" Liverpool.....	1	100 00
Total 1852.....	62,669	\$3,090,106 59
" 1851.....	47,007	2,507,703 04
" 1850.....	34,307	1,896,148 19
" 1849.....	33,309	1,600,457 65
" 1848.....	50,952	2,266,392 84

**COAL.**—The imports of foreign coal at this port have been as follows:

	Tons.	Chal.
From Great Britain.....	9,343	48
" Provinces.....	—	49,716
Total 1852.....	9,343	49,764
" 1851.....	8,487	20,330
" 1850.....	6,251	32,486
" 1849.....	12,062	24,351
" 1848.....	5,795	41,303
" 1847.....	4,251	47,093
" 1846.....	5,233	21,127
" 1845.....	13,699	27,674
" 1844.....	7,532	19,067
" 1843.....	5,050	17,800

The imports from domestic ports have been as follows:

	Tons.	Bushels.
From Philadelphia.....	360,860	—
" Alexandria.....	8,537	—
" Baltimore.....	37,319	—
" Other places.....	24,645	—
" Virginia.....	—	14,000
Total 1852.....	431,270	14,000
" 1851.....	361,073	60,880
" 1850.....	289,571	52,375
" 1849.....	261,963	20,860
" 1848.....	275,246	48,600
" 1847.....	261,259	127,525
" 1846.....	187,028	151,900
" 1845.....	171,023	284,475
" 1844.....	139,566	170,850
" 1843.....	117,451	150,813

**PROVISIONS.**—The receipts of provisions have been as follows:

	1852.	1851.	1850.
Beef.....bbls.....	28,115	32,365	38,042
Pork.....bbls.....	72,018	76,004	146,545
Hams.....casks.....	7,916	7,759	12,237
".....bbls.....	2,049	3,559	4,841
Lard.....bbls.....	37,658	41,926	51,333
".....kegs.....	37,972	21,013	60,913
Cheese.....bxs.....	116,816	88,292	88,574
".....casks.....	8,050	8,015	7,052
".....tons.....	607	730	749
Butter.....tubs.....	109,814	160,113	70,104
".....bbls.....	1,256	546	778
Hogs.....(No. of).....	37,332	30,964	36,766

The exports to foreign and coastwise ports have been as follows:

	1852.	1851.
Pork, foreign.....bbis.	15,962	14,313
" coastwise....."	14,270	22,564
Lard, foreign....."	5,645	13,523
" coastwise....."	4,688	2,541
Lard, foreign.....kegs.	15,256	13,813
" coastwise....."	11,621	7,177
Beef, foreign.....bbis.	9,152	8,784
" coastwise....."	2,615	4,053
Cheese, foreign.....bxs.	11,249	9,084
" coastwise....."	2,745	4,135
Cheese, foreign.....casks.	60	156
" coastwise....."	105	302

FISH.—The inspection returns of mackerel have not yet been completed, but as far as received indicate a material falling off compared with the last few years. This is owing in part to the impediments thrown in the way of our fishermen by the British authorities. Prices have ruled unusually high, in consequence of the limited supplies and the increased demand for consumption. The current rates for mackerel, early in the year, were \$8 25 for No. 1; \$6 50 a \$6 75 for No. 2; \$5 for No. 3, large sizes; and \$4 25 and \$3 75 for No. 2 and 3, small sizes; but prices soon advanced, and the bulk of the sales during the year have been made at \$2 a \$4 per bbl. advance on the opening prices. The highest and lowest prices obtained the past two years were as follows:

	Highest.	1851.	Lowest.	1851.
No. 1, large.....	\$12 50	\$11 00	\$8 25	\$8 00
No. 2.....	11 00	8 75	6 50	6 25
No. 3.....	8 00	5 25	5 00	4 25

Codfish have been sold during the year from \$2 50 a \$4 25 for large, and \$1 87 a \$3 for small, an unusually light stock, in May last, causing prices to run up to the highest figures. The principal sales have been at \$3 a \$3 50 for large, and \$2 a \$2 50 for small, which is from 25 a 50c. per qtl. higher than the current rates of last year. Hake and haddock have been sold from \$1 25 a \$2 25 per qtl.

The import of mackerel from the Provinces, for six years past, has been as follows:

1852.....bbis.	48,570
1851....."	43,399
1850....."	37,920
1849....."	41,856
1848....."	33,265
1847....."	59,098

The imports of other kinds of fish from the Provinces show a very large increase compared with previous years, as follows:

	1852.	1851.	1850.
Salmon.....tierces.	2,260	1,965	1,327
".....bbis.	2,379	3,723	2,376
".....boxes.	1,020	2,228	300
".....kitts.	—	—	10
".....No.	—	—	200
Herring.....bbis.	20,507	6,311	7,441
".....bxs.	—	180	—
".....tcs.	12	—	—
Alewives.....bbis.	13,451	8,368	4,595
Shad.....bbis.	480	127	83
Halibut.....bbis.	—	24	—
Trout.....bbis.	34	30	—
Codfish.....qtls.	48,110	11,185	1,780
".....casks.	241	100	31
".....drums.	2,836	5,30	—
".....bbis.	931	—	—
".....bdis.	729	—	—
".....No.	170,000	—	—
Pollock.....qtls.	421	029	—
".....bxs.	10	—	—
Hake.....qtls.	4,112	—	—
".....casks.	50	—	—
Haddock.....qtls.	97	—	—
Fish.....drums.	70	—	—
".....casks.	93	—	—
".....qtls.	2,888	—	—
".....bxs.	200	—	—

The export of fish for three years past has been as follows:

	1853.	1851.	1850.
Codfish.....drums.	7,356	3,559	4,109
".....bxs.	12,483	8,366	5,494
".....qtls.	53,568	59,679	75,003
Mackerel.....bbis.	120,043	122,106	90,965
Herring.....bxs.	17,529	14,585	12,936

FRUIT.—The imports have been as follows:

	1852.	1851.	1850.
Lemons.....bxs.	40,711	32,570	34,661
Oranges.....bxs.	94,626	108,877	65,043
Figs.....drums.	206,891	325,707	244,793
".....cases.	2,521	2,114	1,523
Raisins.....casks.	16,402	28,374	20,678
".....drums.	9,171	5,518	4,883
".....bxs.	164,753	180,802	187,679

FLOUR.—The receipts have been as follows:

By rail-road — Western.....bbis.	250,811
" Northern.....bbis.	45,669
" Fitchburg.....bbis.	148,292
" Boston & Maine.....bbis.	98,817
By water—From New-York.....bbis.	57,997
" Albany.....bbis.	15,065
" New-Orleans.....bbis.	67,460
" Fredericksburg.....bbis.	22,483
" Georgetown.....bbis.	10,410
" Alexandria.....bbis.	17,996
" Richmond.....bbis.	67,564
" Other ports in Va. ....bbis.	5,120
" Philadelphia.....bbis.	14,038
" Baltimore.....bbis.	40,721
" Other places.....bbis.	15,211

Total 1852.....bbis.	896,454
" 1851.....bbis.	773,512
" 1850.....bbis.	761,148
" 1849.....bbis.	1,026,309
" 1848.....bbis.	935,578
" 1847.....bbis.	1,027,719
" 1846.....bbis.	750,432
" 1845.....bbis.	730,138
" 1844.....bbis.	686,586
" 1843.....bbis.	610,964

From the records of the Western Railroad, we copy the following comparative monthly statement of the receipts of flour for the past five years :

COMPARATIVE MONTHLY STATEMENT OF THE RECEIPTS OF FLOUR FOR THE PAST FIVE YEARS.					
	1852.	1851.	1850.	1849.	1848.
Jan.....	15,027	9,011	4,608	4,608	4,608
Feb.....	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011
March.....	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011
April.....	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011
May.....	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011
June.....	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011
July.....	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011
Aug.....	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011
Sept.....	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011
Oct.....	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011
Nov.....	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011
Dec.....	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011	9,011
Total.....	304,372	343,507	367,806	367,806	367,806

The exports of flour have been as follows :

To foreign ports.....	bbls....	226,324
To coastwise.....	bbls....	43,447
Total 1852.....		269,771
" 1851.....		177,346
" 1850.....		115,316
" 1849.....		153,933
" 1848.....		129,678
" 1847.....		186,728
" 1846.....		150,117

**Tobacco.**—The stock of leaf tobacco in first hands is 700 hhds. against 900 hhds. in 1851, 600 hhds. in 1850, 800 hhds. in 1849, 1,250 hhds. in 1848, and 1,500 hhds. in 1847. The imports have been as follows :

	Hhds.	Bales.	Boxes & Kegs.
1852.....	2,316	4,641	51,008
1851.....	2,691	3,063	41,794
1850.....	2,161	4,946	35,179
1849.....	2,691	8,350	27,089
1848.....	2,112	4,544	39,013
1847.....	3,004	4,780	38,750
1846.....	1,361	4,410	33,442

The amount inspected in Boston for eight years past has been as follows :

	Hhds.
1852.....	1,515
1851.....	1,690
1850.....	1,361
1849.....	1,470
1848.....	1,664
1847.....	2,258
1846.....	1,042
1845.....	4,824

The exports of tobacco were as follows :

	Hhds.	Bales and cases.	Boxes and kegs.
1852.....	991	6,036	19,452
1851.....	1,146	4,104	17,567
1850.....	810	4,030	7,673
1849.....	1,540	3,714	9,823
1848.....	1,619	2,534	9,108
1847.....	1,827	4,243	10,773

**SUGARS.**—The imports were as follows :

	Hhds. & cks.	Bbls.	Bags.	Boxes.
Foreign.....	14,840	1,193	98,632	83,210
Coastwise.....	1,788	7,461	—	3,267
Total 1852.....	16,637	8,654	98,632	86,477
" 1851.....	13,667	5,843	88,126	84,828
" 1850.....	15,797	8,021	53,312	86,610
" 1849.....	11,032	17,502	71,042	47,733
" 1848.....	11,706	5,904	74,129	82,661

The exports for the past five years to foreign ports have been as follows :

	Boxes.	Hhds. & cks.	Bbls.	Bags.
1852.....	6,157	429	4,846	—
1851.....	3,451	1,904	2,760	—
1850.....	7,750	701	5,939	900
1849.....	9,717	531	1,554	1,249
1848.....	5,887	941	2,185	2,500
1847.....	5,450	272	3,292	260

**MOLASSES.**—The quantity taken by distillers during the year comprises 39,000 hhds. of all kinds, of which about 27,500 hhds. were sour Cuba at 16 a 19½c., the principal sales from 16 a 18½c. In 1851, 35,000 hhds. were taken, sour Cuba selling from 17 a 20; in 1850, 31,500 hhds. at 17½ a 23c.; in 1849, 29,000 hhds. at 17 a 21½c.; and in 1848, 26,650 hhds. at 15 a 20c. for Cuba. The import of the year shows a considerable falling off compared with last year. The stock of all kinds now at hand is 1,500 hhds., against 3,100 hhds. in 1851, 5,000 hhds. in 1850, and 3,500 hhds. in 1849. The imports have been as follows :

	Hhds.	Tierces.	Bbls.
Foreign.....	46,681	3,302	1,245
Coastwise.....	34,823	97	3,236
Total 1852.....	71,504	3,399	4,481
" 1851.....	81,412	4,531	3,621
" 1850.....	73,316	5,800	5,998
" 1849.....	72,545	3,692	3,342
" 1848.....	77,675	4,483	7,216
" 1847.....	78,878	4,474	2,575
" 1846.....	69,308	3,144	2,861
" 1845.....	59,790	3,725	13,433
" 1844.....	77,426	—	—
" 1843.....	57,660	—	—

The exports have been :

	Hhds.	Tierces.	Bbls.
To foreign ports.....	1,903	384	117
Coastwise.....	4,414	125	3,088
Total 1852.....	6,319	509	3,205
" 1851.....	8,892	696	4,771
" 1850.....	11,107	539	3,884
" 1849.....	15,781	824	736
" 1848.....	13,967	357	507
" 1847.....	29,586	2,700	1,233
" 1846.....	17,680	2,209	185

**CORN MEAL, WHEAT, &c.**—The receipts of corn meal for seven years past have been as follows:

	bbls.
1832	18,295
1831	10,262
1830	13,838
1849	28,185
1848	41,144
1847	25,080
1846	8,637

The exports have been:

	bbls.
1832	30,603
1831	10,917
1830	19,327
1849	32,768
1848	42,840
1847	44,903
1846	8,651

**GRAIN.**—The receipts of corn have been as follows:

	bushels.
From New-Orleans	424,535
" Virginia	263,345
" Maryland	404,945
" Pennsylvania	165,433
" Delaware	31,300
" New-York & Western Rail-road	688,014
" Other places	39,647
Total 1832	2,118,338

The receipts of corn and oats for a number of years have been as follows:

	Corn.	Oats.
1832	2,118,338	849,173
1831	2,175,367	496,911
1830	2,116,744	339,801
1849	2,759,318	449,324
1848	3,328,293	384,368
1847	2,584,228	521,738
1846	2,374,484	414,417
1845	2,371,406	548,563
1844	1,960,663	506,282
1843	1,540,306	468,032

The receipts of rye and shorts, for the same period, have been as follows:

	Rye.	Shorts.
1832	18,751	140,474
1831	52,833	116,933
1830	50,965	48,869
1849	40,478	66,258
1848	65,189	48,988
1847	50,256	83,620
1846	17,160	96,711
1845	24,184	65,530
1844	30,352	105,025
1843	25,933	40,730

The receipts for wheat show a very large increase over any previous year, and were principally for the use of the flour mills in this vicinity. The following are the receipts for eight years:

	bush.
1832	702,030
1831	405,044
1830	531,047
1849	510,071
1848	336,247
1847	171,127
1846	83,962
1845	37,524

The exports of corn and wheat for seven years past have been as follows:

	Corn, bush.	Wheat, bush.
1832	74,180	25,187
1831	94,161	8,800
1830	160,944	52
1849	323,768	524
1848	518,856	21,249
1847	568,025	14,853
1846	191,254	5,090

**OILS.**—The prices of linseed oil from January to August were comparatively uniform, ranging from 59 a 65c. for American, and 60 a 67c. for English, the principal sales of American having been at 60 a 62c. per gal. Since August the price has been quite fluctuating, ranging from 60 a 77c. per gal. The present current rates are 67 a 68c. The range of prices in 1831 were 61 a 85c., in 1850 from 66 a 96c., and in 1849, from 50 a 90c. There is every reason to believe that prices will rule high for some months. The amount of linseed oil on hand and to arrive before the first of March is not sufficient to supply all our crushers, and in Great Britain the supply of seed is also known to be short. This will, no doubt, reduce the quantity of oil on the market for spring sales, and keep up a high range of prices. The quantity of linseed oil taken for consumption in this vicinity, for some years past, has been as follows:

	American.	English and Dutch.	To
1832, gals.	475,000	440,000	915,000
1831	312,000	425,000	737,000
1850	230,000	550,000	800,000

It will be seen by the above that the amount of oil manufactured in this city has materially increased, and the article is also noted as being of very pure and superior quality. Olive oil in casks has ranged from 90c. a \$1 12½ per gal. during the year, and lard oil from 70c. a \$1. The following statement shows the amount of sperm and whale oil imported into the United States the past ten years:

	Sperm.	Whale.
1832, bbls.	74,430	63,013
1831	99,591	328,483
1830	92,892	200,606
1849	100,944	248,492
1848	107,976	280,756
1847	120,733	313,150
1846	95,217	207,493
1845	137,917	273,730
1844	139,594	262,046
1843	166,985	206,727

**LEATHER, BOOTS AND SHOES.**—The receipts have been as follows:



	Sides.	Bundles.
From New-York and Albany, .....	180,100	2,686
Baltimore .....	19,314	20,137
Philadelphia .....	11,048	6,084
Alexandria .....	—	569
Georgetown .....	—	128
New-Orleans .....	—	3,148
Mobile .....	—	11
Richmond .....	—	410
Fredericksburg .....	—	23
Charleston .....	—	10
Liverpool .....	210	180
London .....	—	89
Halifax .....	—	28
Western Rail-road .....	110,771	35,405
Fitchburg Rail-road .....	65,867	14,362
Northern Rail-road .....	9,708	7,367
Boston & Maine Rail-roads .....	—	791
<b>Total 1852</b> .....	<b>307,028</b>	<b>93,447</b>
1851 .....	476,036	74,262
1850 .....	478,868	63,076
1849 .....	339,142	41,425
1848 .....	582,053	25,791
1847 .....	658,004	26,686
1846 .....	603,730	24,346
1845 .....	641,404	22,959

The boot and shoe trade has been unusually active, and shows a considerable increase over any previous year. Both the South and West have purchased more goods than the most sanguine in the trade expected, while a favorable reaction in the California market has called for increased shipments to that quarter. The number of buyers have, at times, been very large, particularly from the West, many of them new-comers. The stocks on hand at the commencement of the active business seasons, were quite large, but at the close of the fall trade there was a smaller stock of goods on hand than for many previous years. Our manufactures are now engaged on spring work, of which there is a fair supply in market, and the prospects of the trade are quite encouraging. Below is the quantity cleared at the custom-house for some years past. The bulk of the supplies for the West are forwarded by rail-road, and would materially increase these figures could they be obtained.

1852 .....	cases	105,120
1851 .....	"	153,912
1850 .....	"	147,769
1849 .....	"	101,371
1848 .....	"	79,118
1847 .....	"	72,424
1846 .....	"	67,877
1845 .....	"	90,782

**NAVAL STORES.**—The imports for three years have been as follows :

	1852.	1851.	1850.
Rosin .....	bbis. 30,339	37,393	22,806
Turpentine .....	" 22,964	21,881	23,231
Spt's. Turpentine .....	" 9,322	10,764	8,458
Pitch .....	" 355	1,976	3,123
Tar .....	" 22,419	14,364	19,683

The receipts of tar and turpentine for ten years have been as follows:—

	Tar.	Turpentine.
1852 .....	bbis. 22,419	22,964
1851 .....	" 14,364	21,881
1850 .....	" 19,685	23,231
1849 .....	" 24,853	37,956
1848 .....	" 19,959	23,006
1847 .....	" 16,228	56,729
1846 .....	" 16,542	34,728
1845 .....	" 16,597	40,177
1844 .....	" 14,410	41,579
1843 .....	" 13,535	38,042

The exports of naval stores from this port for three years past have been as follows:—

	1852.	1851.	1850.
Rosin .....	bbis. 11,740	10,527	13,146
Spirits Turpentine .....	" 1,243	1,143	1,065
Tar .....	" 5,075	5,081	7,184
Pitch .....	" 5,509	6,241	4,863
Turpentine .....	" 440	43	3,008

**IRON.**—Scotch pig iron, from January to September last, sold from \$19 a \$21, the principal cargo sales having been from \$19 a \$20. During September and October prices rapidly advanced, owing to the small supplies expected from Great Britain and the increased consumption, and sales from vessel have been made, for some weeks past, at \$30 a \$31 per ton, the highest prices obtained for some years. In 1851 the range of prices was from \$18 50 a \$24, in 1850, from \$20 a \$23 50, and in 1849, from \$21 a \$28 per ton. The imports have been as follows:

	From Russia.	Sweden.	Great Britain.	Cont'w'ce.
Bars .....	5,184	29,118	543,185	118,555
Do. tons .....	80	2,488	347	802
RR bars .....	—	—	16,457	2,165
Do. tons .....	—	—	3,983	687
Bundles .....	9,640	140	146,703	28,699
Plates .....	—	—	14,608	5,900
Bloom, tons .....	—	—	—	53
Bloom No. .....	—	—	—	1,282
Scrap, tons .....	—	—	1,542	16
Pig, tons .....	—	—	21,566	13,090

The total receipts for three years past have been as follows:—

	1851.	1851.	1850.
Bars .....	606,042	691,469	775,477
Do. tons .....	3,717	2,804	3,144
RR bars .....	18,622	16,626	22,607
Do. tons .....	4,870	2,927	6,360
Bundles .....	185,191	209,759	141,004
Plates .....	20,508	33,876	19,928
Blooms .....	1,382	—	4,677
Do. tons .....	53	240	—
Boiler, tons .....	—	30	50
Scrap .....	1,558	2,570	1,280
Pig, tons .....	34,056	30,051	22,065

**ICE.**—The export of ice, as cleared at the custom-house the past year, has been as follows:

	Tons.
To East Indies.....	11,307
London.....	450
Liverpool.....	1,253
San Francisco.....	2,332
Central America.....	2,702
Panama.....	477
Sydney, Australia.....	366
Navy Bay.....	226
Cadiz.....	196
Rio Janeiro.....	2,477½
Chagres and a market.....	113
Kingston, Ja.....	1,126
Demarara.....	627
Barbadoes.....	633
Pernambuco.....	466
Guadaloupe.....	387
Porto Rico.....	741
Porto Cabello.....	69
St. Thomas.....	1,061
Martinique.....	820
Havana.....	5,261
Matanzas.....	925
St. Jago.....	430
Nassau.....	361½
St. Vincent's.....	319
Trinidad, P. S.....	633
Bermuda.....	65
Southern ports.....	60,368

Total 1832.....	tons.....	96,462
" 1831.....	"	99,578
" 1850.....	"	60,023
" 1849.....	"	66,308
" 1848.....	"	57,507
" 1847.....	"	54,625
" 1846.....	"	57,293
" 1845.....	"	48,422

HIDES.—The imports have been as follows:

	Bales.	Number.
B. Ayres and Rio Grande.....	"	141,680
Valparaiso & Central America.....	"	21,498
Bahia.....	"	10,092
Truxillo.....	"	10,946
Cape of Good Hope.....	"	7,010
Other foreign ports.....	"	88,747
Coastwise ports.....	"	198,515
Calcutta.....	3,485	—
Manilla.....	900	—

Total—1832.....	3,685.....	479,268
" 1851.....	3,790.....	616,562
" 1850.....	3,698.....	592,137
" 1849.....	3,477.....	572,076
" 1848.....	4,738.....	450,507
" 1847.....	1,902.....	472,962
" 1846.....	2,757.....	342,310
" 1845.....	2,932.....	411,057
" 1844.....	3,298.....	507,986
" 1843.....	2,943.....	310,807
" 1842.....	4,235.....	340,235
" 1841.....	936.....	432,481
" 1840.....	3,552.....	205,909

The import of goat skins the past six years has been as follows:

	Bales.	Number.
1832.....	4,422.....	107,833
1851.....	6,768.....	72,115
1850.....	4,636.....	48,960
1849.....	5,757.....	33,255
1848.....	7,356.....	41,905
1847.....	4,788.....	35,455

## ART. IX.—BRITISH PHILANTHROPY AND AMERICAN SLAVERY.\*

AN AFFECTIONATE RESPONSE TO THE LADIES OF ENGLAND, ETC., FROM THE LADIES OF THE SOUTHERN UNITED STATES; TOGETHER WITH SOME REMARKS FOR THE NORTH BRITISH REVIEW.—BY A SOUTHERN LADY.

[We recommend this spirited and able paper, from the pen of a Southern Lady, to the attention of our readers on both sides of the Atlantic. The author, though known to fame, prefers the discharge of domestic duties to the noisy applause of the world. Her protest against the mis-called "Woman's Rights" movement at the North, which we published in our September number of last year, asserted and maintained the dignity, the elevation, the beauty of female character in its relation to that of the male, in the present constitution of society, and without any resort to Amazonian conventions.]

Fire! fire! fire! bawled, one day, an officious neighbor, as he pointed to the heavy smoke, whose black volumes rose somewhat threateningly from an adjacent chimney. "Fire! fire! fire!" Street boys soon echoed the cry. Town-bells rang. Rattling on rushed the engines. "Fire! fire! fire!" There stood the officious neighbor, watching the smoke, and rather in hopes that the greedy flame might start up at last to prove him a true prophet. "Fire! fire! fire!" The

cry continues, though he vainly strains his eyes to catch a glimpse of the red flash. "Fire! fire! fire!"—The flash, the noise, the crash is behind him. While he, poor meddling fool! is watching for it in his neighbor's house, his own is blazing.

Most noble and honorable ladies! most sapient and learned reviewers! fortunate would it be for your own sakes and ours, could you but fix your eyes upon the stifling smoke issuing from

\*1. North British Review, Nov. 1852. Article—"American Slavery and Uncle Tom's Cabin." 2. The affectionate and Christian address of many thousands of the women of England to their sisters, the women of the United States of America.

your own homes, instead of keeping them busy with your spy-glasses in watching our motions across the Atlantic. These spy-glass reports, by-the-way, play wild work sometimes. We have lately had a droll explanation from a learned professor,\* of a report concerning certain views of the inhabitants of the moon. It seems that the learned gentleman, while indulging a pretty young lady with a peep at that luminary through his telescope, chanced to mention in conversation with a bystander, that in casting his telescopic sight over the surrounding sublunary landscape, he had once chanced to bring into the view a washerwoman at her tub, whose evolutions had much amused him. The wonder-loving young lady understood this remark to refer to the moon, and forthwith behold in circulation a perfectly well-authenticated story of washer-women in the moon, and for aught we know to the contrary, the world might have been soon agog for the improvement of the condition of these ladies, and some philanthropic society would have imagined a method for sending them the last invention in washing-kettles, if unfortunately the learned professor had not spoiled the wonder by revealing the truth. Ladies and reviewers, may it not be worth inquiring whether the "Uncle Tom" view of your transatlantic brethren be not as wide of the truth as this young lady's lunar washerwomen? Let us advise you to cast aside your "Uncle Tom" spy-glasses. Look with your own eyes; hear with your own ears, and do not too easily credit stories about washerwomen in the moon.

Fire! fire! fire!—When the cry is in your ears, look at your own house first. Perchance you may see the sorrow and the anguish there. Perchance you may see the black smoke of suffering steaming forth from the sweltering sacrifice of broken hearts within your own soil! Hangs it not over you, that great sorrow-cloud,—thick, dark, dense,—even as the fog of your own great London, casting its gloom over pomp and palaces? Sin and sorrow are the badge of mortality; and, gentle ladies, believe us, if you would act the good Samaritan, you will find your sick and your wounded, even as you pass along by your own

road side. For heaven's pity, then, crush not beneath your chariot wheels, in a wild chase after phantasmagoric evils, those whom God has given you to relieve. You trample over real flesh and blood, while you gaze weepingly toward the painted pictures of a magic lantern.

Evils there are, alas! God knows, strewn thick enough through our world; and prophets too there are, whose God-inspired genius may sometimes help to guide us through the labyrinth, and point a ray of hope, shining midst the darkness. But, fair ladies, they are not such as you who can grapple with God's mysteries. Nor, learned reviewers, are ye yet learned enough for the holy task. Your conventions and your appeals,—your Uncle Tom corollaries and Wilberforceian apings, are but the filthy scum which, forcing itself uppermost, hides the deep truth beneath. There is evil in God's blessed world (why, God only knows), but there is also good,—deep, earnest good,—for those who will seek it deeply and earnestly. Below the nauseous froth-scum of sickly philanthropy and new-light Christianity, runs, quiet but clear, the pure stream of God-given reason and common-sense humanity. Ladies and reviewers, *God is God*, but ye are not his prophets. Deeply must the heart have felt, deeply must the brain have thought, laboriously must its problem be worked out by the giant mind whose destiny it is to turn the fate of nations. Who are these who now start up with gibbering, mopping, and wringing of hands, to guide the peoples of the earth to righteousness, and to dictate to the consciences of nations? What know the Dutchess of Sutherland, Bedford, or Argyle,—what knows the Countess of Shaftesbury or the Viscountess Palmerston, or any Honble. Lady A. B. or C., of all who thought fit to convene at Stafford-house for the benefit and instruction of the benighted of this land,—what know any of these of the workings of great political systems? What know they of American slavery? They have read "Uncle Tom's Cabin" forsooth, and they have seen that the authoress thereof vouches for the accuracy of her facts, even as did the veracious Baron Munchausen for his. They have read "Uncle Tom's Cabin," and without further question they take it for their gospel, and Mrs. Stowe for

\* Professor Olmsted, of Yale College.

their Messiah; and, with the zeal of new converts, start a crusade to the land where their Peter the Hermit (the Hon. the Earl of Shaftesbury) points them. With hallelujahs to liberty, and dolorous laments over negro bondage, they commence the attack, not in person, with the cross of suffering upon their shoulders, but comfortably lolling upon their sofas, they issue their appeals to their sinning sisters of this sinful land with most pharasaical humility. "Lord, we thank thee that we are not like unto these!"

"Fire! fire! fire!" Most loving sisters, be not too much startled by the cry, but retain, if possible, your gentle sympathies and nervous terrors sufficiently within bounds, to enable you to look with the necessary presence of mind to your own premises. Fire! fire! fire! This stifling sorrow-smoke, still slowly rising always as though in solemn appeal to the God of Heaven against heart-breaking, body-crushing agony; this constant dumb prayer of remediless suffering, whence is it? Is it only from our sugar fields and cotton plantations? Is it the negro alone whose weary shoulders bend beneath their load? England is a proud country—a great country—a noble and a glorious country; but, proud Pharisee, beware! you may fast twice in the week, you may give tithes of all you possess, and yet you may find, even in happy England, most stringent duties that you leave unfulfilled. The suppliant at your own door is forgotten, while you weep over the unredressed wrongs of foreign lands. Were it not better, gentle ladies, to nurse your own sick, to feed your own hungry, and to trust to the instincts of woman's heart in her own land, to relieve her own weary and her own suffering. Can it be that midst the millions of America, Mrs. Stowe's is the only true woman's heart which has dared to remonstrate against such scenes of horror as you suppose to exist among us. Believe not thus your sex, noble ladies. If duchesses and countesses can sufficiently descend from their high rank to feel like ordinary women, with every-day hearts, and every-day woman sympathies, will they not blush to think what a slander their "affectionate and Christian address" casts upon so large a portion of their civilized sisterhood? Ladies of Stafford-house, believe us, you have not the monopoly of woman-feelings, and

were the evil of our institutions so "enormous," and prevailing with "such frightful results" as you suppose, long ere this would we women of the Southern United States, "as sisters, as wives, and as mothers," have raised "our voices to our fellow-citizens and our prayers to God for the removal of this affliction from the Christian world." Believe us, ladies, we have not waited for your appeal "to ask council of God how far such a state of things is in accordance with His holy word, the inalienable rights of immortal souls, and the pure and merciful spirit of the Christian religion." We can think as women, and feel as women, and act as women, without waiting for the promptings of your appeals, or of Mrs. Stowe's imaginative horrors. It seems to us, that you should receive it as a strong proof of how much you have mistaken our system, that so many millions of women—mothers, sisters, and daughters, loving and beloved, civilized women, Christian women, have contentedly lived in the midst of it, and yet the common woman-heart among us has not risen up to call it *curse*. Are ye women and mothers, and yet believe that these millions of women and mothers, bearing their babes upon their breasts, could teach their own beloved ones, even with their earliest breath, a constant lie? That for the paltry dollar's sake, we would bid them suck in falsehood with their mother's milk and teach them to barter their consciences for money? Nay, if ye have not, in the luxuries of rank, ceased to know the mother's love for her nursing, and the pure welling forth of a mother's hope for the child of her bosom—rather will ye suppose that we will tip those breasts with arsenic, and drug their milk with hemlock. However exceptional cases may shock the world, never did a nation of women systematically rear their sons to be villains. Yet such, and no less, is the charge conveyed against us, in your "affectionate and Christian appeal." If we have tolerated the system of iniquity that you describe, if we have taught our children to love it, if we are willing to bid them defend it, even unto blood should it be necessary, as man should defend the dearest rights of his hearth and home, what are we? The heathen kneeling to his

"Moloch, horrid king, besmeared with blood  
Of human sacrifice."



and offering his child upon the altar of "his grim idol," has, at least, the excuse of ignorance and superstition for his brutal worship. Not so we. Knowingly and with open eyes, without one twinge of conscience, one *mea culpa*, we fling the offspring of our own flesh and blood into this seething abyss of abominations. This is in fact, unless we advance the plea of a general national imbecility, the crime of which we are guilty, if there is any foundation for the universal jeremiades which it is now the fashion to wail over negro slavery. It is useless for us to tell the benevolent ladies and gentlemen who have undertaken to instruct us in our catechism of humanity, that they have quite mistaken our case and are entirely ignorant of the condition of the negro. Uncle Tom's Cabin tells them differently. It is useless for us to tell them that our slaves are not interdicted "education in the truths of the gospel and the ordinances of Christianity;" it is useless for us to repeat that their family ties and social affections are respected and indulged in a greater degree than those of any laboring class in the world. "Uncle Tom's Cabin" says differently; and the negrophilists have very nearly reached the point of pronouncing sentence of excommunication, on the ground of infidelity, against all who dispute the authenticity of so high an authority. It is useless for us to point to the comparative census of the divers nations of the earth; it is useless for us to show that in none are the tables of crime, of deformity and insanity so low as in our slave population. Mrs. Stowe and Uncle Tom! Mrs. Stowe and Uncle Tom! Mrs. Stowe and Uncle Tom! ding, ding, dong. What is the use of reasoning? what is the use of facts, when those who should hear us, deafen themselves with this eternal "ding, dong" of superstitious prejudice and pharisaical cant? As regards the condition of our slaves, compared with that of the white population of our own free states (than which, avowedly, no population in the world enjoys higher advantages), ten minutes' investigation of our late census returns, with about so much arithmetical knowledge as any boy of ten years old can command, will suffice to show that, for every insane slave, there are from eight to nine insane whites; and that this is not an exception resulting from any physical peculiarity

of the negro, is proved by the fact that among the free blacks the proportion of insane is, within a very small fraction, equal to that among the whites. This fact alone speaks volumes. The numbers of deaf mutes and of blind, although the disproportion is not so great, shows largely in favor of the slave, and are worth dwelling upon as indicating the comforts of his position; but, would men consent to open their eyes and hearts to the truth, volumes of argument and cart-loads of Uncle Tom's Cabins would not weigh a feather against the indisputable fact which we have just noted of the disparity in the numbers of the insane presented in the different positions referred to. Will the ladies of Stafford-house favor us with some corresponding facts among their manufacturing and mining populations? They cannot. They dare not. The statistics of the poor are a fearful study. Duchesses and countesses can only read of them in novels, and weep over them when well draped in romance.

But our brethren of the reviews, hard-handed and hard-headed folks as they are, venture sometimes deeper, and we are accordingly a little amazed, and not a little instructed by an article in the "North British," which happens, by accident we presume, (though the close juxtaposition looks almost like a mischievous design on the part of somebody,) to have its place immediately following the one with which we have headed our remarks. We are amused by the contrast between the two articles. Here stands "American slavery and Uncle Tom's Cabin," treated of with all the gall and prejudice which the subject always seems to awake in those who ignorantly meddle with it; and immediately annexed is "The Modern Exodus, in its effects on the British Islands," wherein the sufferings leading to this Exodus (as the enormous emigration from the British islands is aptly termed) are treated of with a philosophic insight, a coolness of argument, and an apparent careful investigation of fact, which present a strange contrast to the sentimental slang, the careless assertion, and broad misstatements of the negrophilist article. The two together put us strangely in mind of the often-quoted joke of the reverend wit: "Orthodoxy is my doxy, and heterodoxy is your doxy." In the article on the "Exodus," it is acknow-

ledged of the laborers of certain districts of England (Dorsetshire and Devonshire) that they are "permanently wretched." "In Buckinghamshire and Bedfordshire\* wages are seldom such as adequately to support life;" and as a whole it is "indisputable that the usual earnings of the rural day-laborer are not sufficient to provide his family with food, clothing and habitation, of fitting kind and quantity." Of artisans, the reviewer states that the hand-loom weavers of Lancashire, Paisley, and Spitalfields are either always or periodically in distress. "Their toil is so incessant and severe, as to leave no time nor wish for anything but sleep, and to render their life an alarming approximation to that of the brutes that perish." Of distressed work-people of large towns, needle-women, &c., he says:—"These classes are said to number thousands in the metropolis alone; and their sufferings and privations are such as can scarcely be credited in a civilized and Christian country. Nor, whatever may be our opinion as to the causes of their wretchedness, or the undue coloring thrown over it, can we refuse to believe in the general fact of its existence." Let our readers remember that we are not quoting from a novel. The writer has no wish to make up a picture. There is no call for the sympathies of readers; no necessity for embellishment. Simple facts are stated in the simplest manner, and that, not of mis-governed colonists, or degraded Irish, but of the laboring classes of great and happy England. Such as these naturally emigrate largely. Let us turn now to Ireland and guess what must be her condition, even had we no other data from which to argue, when we find that her emigration considerably more than doubles that of the whole of England and Scotland combined. Of 335,966, who left the United Kingdom in 1851, it is stated that 257,372 were Irish. If the emigration is proportioned to the suffering, what is the condition of Ireland? "By the combined effect of emigration and famine (says the reviewer) the population of Ireland was reduced from 8,175,124 in 1841, to 6,515,794, in 1851." In 1851 the number of Irish emigrants had risen to 257,-

000; and in the first six months of 1852 already 125,000 had gone. "Ireland is being depopulated at the rate of a quarter of a million per annum, a process which, if continued, will empty her entirely in the course of twenty-four years." So much for the happiness of the subjects of Britain. God knows, not in triumph but in self-defence do we dwell upon such facts. We are accused of supporting a system [heinous beyond comparison, oppressive beyond conception. What defence have we farther than to show (while we acknowledge suffering and oppression under every system) that ours is certainly not the worst? Let England, if it be possible, cure this, her own heart-disease, before prescribing for others. If it be impossible, let her bow to the mystery of God and patiently work out her destiny, leaving us to accomplish ours.

The reviewer of the "Exodus" goes on to remark with regard to Ireland that not only is it necessary "to remove redundant numbers, but to replace them by a more energetic, more aspiring and more improvable race. The poor Celts must be pushed out, or starved out, to make place for more improvable Saxons: and why? Because their nature requires them to be "controlled, disciplined, and guided by others. Left to their own devices, a prey to their own indolent, slovenly, and improvident tendencies, all history shows how helpless and prone to degenerate they are." They are "deficient also in that faculty of self-government and self-control in the absence of which free institutions can never flourish or be permanently maintained." The poor Celt, then, must be unhoused, turned forth upon the world to work, beg, steal or die, it matters little; for the powerful and "improvable Saxon" needs his land. He is incapable of self-government; ergo, he must be governed. Or, (the governing power being deficient,) he must even make himself scarce in just such proportion as will establish the equilibrium between the *minus* and the *plus* quantities. He must emigrate or die, according to circumstances. The world must progress and his place is wanted. There is no longer room for him. Let him vanish! Amen! Is this wrong? We dare not say so. It seems rather a hard necessity than a wrong. The inferior people always have, always must, it

\* Her Grace the Duchess of Bedford, it would appear, might find something at home to occupy her special charity. She is second in the lists for the American Crusade.

would appear, pass away before the wants of the superior, and the necessities of progress. "Begone, ye incompetent!" is surely the stern law of man's existence. Begone, from your land, from your home—ay, if it be necessary, from your life! The short spasm of a being, or of millions of beings, counts low in these calculations. We shudder at the thought, and yet, we repeat, we dare not call it a wrong. A necessity is never a wrong. A necessity of God's making—is it not a right? From such a dilemma where is the escape? Heaven only knows, and to its high mystery we bow.

Our brethren of England see and feel the necessity of this iron logic when the evil comes home to them; but find a quite different philosophy, when the question is of their neighbors. While their Irish slave is turned shivering and houseless forth upon the bleak, cold world, their sentimentalists, as though in compensation for the philosophic coolness of this veritable edict for the extinction of a nation, weep floods of sympathy for the oppressed negro!—the negro, whose happy lot of ease and plenty would, to the wretched of their land, present an almost Elysian bliss. What would they have us do? Even allowing that the condition of the negro were such as they represent, how would they better it? The negro surely is not a superior man to their outcast Celt. If the Irishman be incapable of self-government and self-control; if his indolent, slovenly and improvident tendencies, need the control, discipline, and guidance of others, who that has the slightest knowledge of the negro character, will deny that these difficulties present themselves in him in a tenfold *ratio*? Our reviewer finds his only hope for the Irish in a scattering of them among the other nations of the earth. "Wherever they settle singly among Americans or British, they improve, advance, and civilize; wherever they *congregate*, so as to carry Ireland about with them, they continue what we see them at home." This adherence to the peculiarities of race is of course not singular to the Irish. The negro, too, has *his* peculiarities, which are kept in abeyance by his association with, and subjection to the white man. Check that association and subjection, and how rapidly do we see him falling back to *fetishe* and barbarism! Wherever the Irish *congregate*,

they carry Ireland about with them, for the simple reason that the peculiarities of one race can only be washed out by the commingled blood of others. The negro, under similar circumstances, brings to us, then, all the dark horrors of Negro-land, and not many decades will elapse ere the imperial Soulouque will (unless the rapid downward progress of himself and his nation be arrested by the mastery of the white sovereigns who are now closing round him) present to us some pretty scenes of negrodom of the fashion perhaps of that which we are told the grandees of Dahomy recently treated her majesty's commissioners;—*une jolie fête*! a pretty pastime!—consisting of the hunting down and roasting of a few of their free and happy negro brethren made prisoners among the neighboring nations.

What then is to be done with the negro? The Irish, to prevent this formation of little Irelands all over the world, are very judiciously advised to scatter themselves, and thus, by a proper distribution of their peculiar traits, the Irish blood, as a kind of salt to the earth, distributes itself not uselessly through the civilized world. Will our reviewer maintain that the same course is practicable,—conceivable even,—with regard to the negro? Can the ladies of Stafford-house coolly contemplate the feasibility of such an unraveling of this Gordian knot? Will their admiration for Mrs. Stowe not stop short of amalgamation? We answer for them boldly. We do them more justice than they have done to us. As Christian and civilized women, they shrink with horror from the idea. What then, we repeat, can be done with the negro? Amalgamation cannot be thought of. Barbarism then—cannibal barbarism—slavery or extinction is his fate. Will our self-constituted teachers in the A, B, C, of humanity, have the goodness to inform us which of these alternatives they would advise as a first experiment?—Even were the condition of the negro with us such as the wailings of negrophilists have described it, however much it might need a remedy, that remedy would never be found in emancipation. Jamaica shows what, under the best auspices, is the rapid tendency of this people, when set free from control. It will not need a century more to convince England that Jamaica, but for her greater distance and thus more convenient

facility for being shaken off, would be a worse sore upon her system than ever Ireland has been. If the one be the disgusting boil, which stains and soils with its constantly emitted pus, the other (unless Coolie emigration and common sense puts the negro back into his natural position, or, as is likeliest, drive him from existence) will prove the black and incurable gangrene to be got rid of only by speedy amputation. Supposing then slavery to be even such as it has been described, what escape is there for the negro? Literally none. If there be upon him a curse (which we are not inclined to allow), the curse is of God's laying on—not of ours. But, we repeat, we believe it not a curse. Inferiority is not a curse. Every creature is suited for its position, and fulfilling that position can certainly not be called cursed. What God has made, dare we to call it cursed? No, ladies. As He has made you to be women and not men—mothers and sisters, and not (according to the modern improvement system), soldiers and legislators, so has He fitted the negro for his position and suited him to be happy and useful in it. The negro's civilization,—his only civilization,—is slavery, serfdom,—call it what you will, the condition and not the epithet is the point in question. Were the disease of our system such as you, ladies, and others, have, we believe, in thoughtlessness rather than in malice described it, your rose-water appeals, as a contemporary editor well calls them, could have but slight effect; a sticking-plaster to a cloven skull, a pack-thread to guide an elephant, would be equally efficient.

But, our decriers have, we now go on to maintain, entirely mistaken our case. They have trusted to Mrs. Stowe's spectacles, whose strange power of distortion shows everything under a false view. The "North British" expatiates upon the power of pathos and other admirable qualities of this authoress, and cheers her on to the work, recalling the fact that it was "a woman, Elizabeth Heyrick, who wrote the pamphlet that moved the heart of Wilberforce to pity and to pray over the wrongs of the oppressed sons of Africa." We can only say that if so, Elizabeth Heyrick was almost as mischievous a woman in her day, as Mrs. Stowe now threatens to be; for those tears of Wilberforce have

caused more shedding of blood, more anguish of soul, more agony of body and of mind, than it often falls to the lot of one man to give scope to. He attacked crime, not with the philosophic coolness which examines, compares, probes causes and effects, and thus has at least the fairest chance for cure;—but with a species of feminine pathos and wailings, caught perhaps from Mrs. Heyrick, he set the example, and opened that sluice of sickly sentimentality which too often, taking the place of sound sense and argument, now inundates the world, causing agonies of body and soul, to which the worst scenes of the slave trade, heinous as they were, stand but as dust in the balance. The tears of blind enthusiasm are oftenest paid for, more than drop for drop, in blood. Wilberforce was, we believe, a good man, so far as *intentions* go; but a more mischievous man in *deeds* has seldom existed. The mania may be pardoned for his follies, but it is hard to call upon the world to kneel and worship him. To Mrs. Stowe it is difficult to extend the same charity. We rejoice to believe, from sundry indications, that the mania of Uncle Tomism has nearly run its course; but it is a fearful sign of the times that such a truckling, money-seeking speculation—such a Judas-like sale of truth and conscience—should even for the short space of a few weeks or a few months, have raised its author to the position of a heroine and prophetess. The sudden accession of philanthropic *furor* which has been waked up in the cause of negrodome, catches its flame from an altar lit up by no fire from heaven; its prophetess no sibyl,—but rather some fortune-seeking gipsy, who, her hand once crossed with gold, laughs at the simple fool who credits her tales, while she pockets the reward of her falsehood.

The "North British" remarks, "among all the tributes to this appeal of Mrs. Stowe to every human feeling and every Christian principle, there is, perhaps, no greater tribute to its power than the kind and multitude of *answers* that have issued, and are issuing from the upholders and abettors of the slave-system of whose horrors this *tremendous revelation* has been made. We have said that the power of the book lies in its truth, directed to the consciences of men,—and, accordingly, we find that



the consciences of men are dealing with it, as truth. And, perhaps, it is in its being an appeal to conscience, and in its being responded to as such, that the book stands out from the class to which it nominally belongs. When did an army of journalists, and novelists, and pamphleteers—in fact, all the legal organs of society—ever before so set themselves in battle array to contend against the truth of a so-called work of fiction? "The fact is that Mrs. Stowe has told the truth fearlessly; and therefore is she not only answered, but answered wrathfully; and should these answers not teach us to doubt her statements, they will, at least, teach us to estimate the degree of moral courage, the power of Christian principle required to enable her to speak the truth in America."

In the days of witchcraft, among other ordeals, one, which was, we are told, much used, consisted in casting the accused, bound hand and foot, into the water. Should the unfortunate being sink, a quiet death was his (or oftenest her) best fate. Should the unstruggling wretch float, no farther proof of crime was necessary, and pricking to death, or burning, or torturing in any and every imaginable way, was the certain result. We are placed, it would appear, in a somewhat similar position to that of the accused witch. Here is a "tremendous revelation" stated to have appeared against us. If we are silent, we acknowledge the sin and our accusers proceed accordingly. If we speak in exculpation, it proves that we feel the "appeal to conscience," and shrink before the prick. And if, unfortunately, the slightest impatience, the slightest warmth of expression, enters into our defence, behold! it is proof positive and indisputable! The devil's mark upon us. The poor witch is condemned while the righteous accuser pockets at once the honor and the profits of our conviction. We should like to summon before us in bodily entity, the intangible existence shrouded under the reviewer's "We," and ask him, as a *man*, whether, on receiving a slap on the face, or a tweak of the nose, the involuntary impulse which moves his arm to knock down the aggressor be a proof of his deserving said slap, or said tweak? Or whether, when some insolent puppy gives him the lie, it be a verification of the charge, that the indignant motion of

the flexor and extensor muscles of his leg, gives the assailant a somewhat angry response to the remark? It is false, too, to say that *all* this indignation is excited by a *so-called work of fiction*, if by this it is intended to say an *acknowledged* work of fiction. Mrs. Stowe expressly states, both in her work and out of it, that it is a representation of *fact*. The reviewer himself calls it a "*tremendous revelation*." "Mrs. Stowe has told the truth fearlessly," &c., &c. Are we then, in combating her assertions, combating a *so-called fiction*, or a *so-called fact*? The world of Europe has chosen to take on trust, because it strikes in with the sentimental whim of the day, the account of a woman, every page of whose book shows that she has seen little, and knows nothing of our institutions. Still she calls them *fact*, and Europe takes them as *fact*. What more natural than that we should attempt to check the progress of the slander, by declaring its falsity. A little further on, the reviewer quotes what he calls "the heart words of this true-hearted woman." She writes of her book: "There has been hardly a day since it has been published that confirmatory voices have not come from southern slaveholders; men who have long waited for an opportunity to speak, and who now come out to attest its truth,—for alas! they know what I know, and they must perceive that I know it, that the half is not told in that book. A book that should tell all, would not be credited,—it *could not be read*. . . . I have only wondered some moments, in the anguish of the survey, that the firm earth does not collapse to hide such horror from the sun!"

This, certainly, from the sound, indicates something horrible! most horrible! and considering the prevalence of cholera there is something peculiarly alarming in the idea of threatened collapse of the firm earth which should come to visit our sins; particularly as the lady tells us that she has so many confirmatory voices to bear witness to the iniquities of our land. Now, to assuage the terrors of our reviewer and others, who, in case of our old mother earth being "taken so bad," might, as well as ourselves, suffer in the catastrophe, we must inform them, that Mrs. Stowe's published letters have not always had that regard for veracity

which would be desirable in so distinguished a lady. We have not room here for the details of a correspondence, threatened suit, &c., &c., with and about the Rev. Dr. Parker, who happened to be brought in by name as a "confirmatory voice" by the lady, and who, not submitting quietly to the charge, forced an investigation and confession, which proved the publication, by Mrs. Stowe, of sundry letters which had in fact never been sent, received, nor even written, by the persons from whom they purported to have come. In short, they were utterly false; and what would, in the usual language of the world (what-  
 ever milder term Mrs. Stowe and her coadjutors might make use of), be called forged letters. The lady has, we believe, been more careful since this transaction, and following the safer plan of not naming names, speaks indefinitely of "confirmatory voices," which, like "those airy tongues which syllable men's names," are too intangible to be brought in witness against her, or to threaten suit for \$40,000. We presume that the reviewer is ignorant of her ability in composing facts, and thus takes without dispute those which he quotes from her letter. "*The heart-words of this true-hearted woman!*" So goes the world! We will not wish for a "collapse of the firm earth" to swallow up our fair foe, but truly we would counsel her, as she is fond of quoting scripture, to study a little the decalogue. Perchance she may there come across an old law which seems to have slipped her memory: "Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbor."

*A propos* of misstating facts,—the reviewer himself, misled by somebody not more accurate than Mrs. Stowe, falls into some strange blunders. "What is the meaning," (he asks, in the midst of sundry quotations, showing what he supposes the condition of our negroes under "the hideous social malady" under which we labor,) "what is the meaning of that law of South Carolina, declaring death to be the punishment not only of the runaway slave, but of any person who shall choose to aid him in his escape? or of that of Louisiana, declaring it lawful to fire upon any slaves who do not stop when pursued?" &c., &c.

We will quote no further. Wishing to dispose first of these two clauses, we

honestly looked for the authorities to these statements, and find in a note, as reference for the first clause, "Brevard's Digest, vol. ii., p. 236." We turn to book, volume and page. The gentleman must have been reading with Mrs. Stowe's spectacles; there is nothing in any way resembling the quotation referred to. For the second clause, the reference is (also in a note) "Brevard's Digest of the Laws of Louisiana, Code Noir, vol. i., p. 33." Here, we are quite at a stand—"Brevard's Digest of the Laws of Louisiana," being a volume entirely unknown to American lawyers. There is not, and never has been, any such work; Brevard's Digest including only the laws of South Carolina. How are such wantonly false assertions to be met? We are not well enough versed in the laws of Louisiana to say what shadow of foundation the reviewer may find in them for his quotation from his imaginary law-book.\* Those of South Carolina we have at hand, and have carefully examined all of them which relate to slaves. In Brevard's Digest, vol. ii., p. 245, we find, among our colonial laws, passed A. D. 1754, the following:

"All, and every person and persons, who shall inveigle, steal, or carry away any negro, or other slave or slaves; or shall hire, aid, or counsel any person or persons to inveigle, steal, or carry away, as aforesaid, any such slave, so as the owner or employer of such slave or slaves shall be deprived of the use and benefit of such slave or slaves; or that

\* So far as the reference is to the *Code Noir* of Louisiana, it is also false. No such privilege is recorded in any of the sections of the code. That code was made in 1724 by Bienville, and, with many harsh features, has some that are in the highest degree liberal and indulgent. Among them are (xi.) "Masters shall have their Christian slaves buried in consecrated ground." (xlii.) Husbands and wives shall not be seized and sold separately when belonging to the same master; and their children, under fourteen years, shall not be separated from their parents. This article shall apply to voluntary sales." (xxii.) This is the only section that seems to justify the charge of the reviewer, as it makes the crime of "running away" punishable with death, but then it must be the third offence—must be continuous—must have been denounced by public authority, and the punishment must be by the constituted authorities. British statutes have made the offence of breaking prison and escape a felony, without clergy, even where the party is innocent of the original offence charged. The *Code Noir*, however, has not been in force in Louisiana since 1806. By the law of 1806, Bullard & Curry, vol. i. (sec. xxxii.), the runaway slave may be killed "should the said slave assault and strike the person pursuing;" a very different case from that of the North British! (xxxv.) "It shall be lawful to fire upon runaway slaves who may be armed." XXXix. gives magistrates the right to fine for improper pro-

shall aid any such slave in running away or departing from his master's or employer's service, shall be, and he and they is, and are, hereby declared to be guilty of felony, and being thereof convicted or attainted by verdict or confession; or being indicted thereof, shall stand mute; or will not directly answer to the indictment; or will peremptorily challenge above the number of the jury, shall suffer death as felons, and be excluded and debarred of the benefit of clergy."

Here is certainly a law stern enough, but not against the slave. Here is punishment for the tempter, but none for the tempted. The punishment for the runaway slave is *never*, and has never been, death. In the act of actual resistance, he is certainly liable to receive death, as is any fugitive from law while resisting constituted authorities,—but there is not, and never has been, any law making the act of evasion a crime. The act just quoted against the person inveigling a slave is an old English law, and a strong disposition has existed on the part of the State of South Carolina to repeal it, as too severe for the offence. The action of the state has in this been only checked by abuse and mischievous interference with her legislation. In our own opinion, however, it is an act which, for the *safety and comfort of the slave*, should be kept in force. The object of it is to guard him from the attempts of evil-disposed persons, who, either with a view of gain, would abstract the slave and afterwards dispose of him to their own profit, or else maliciously inveigle him from the protection and direction of his

vision for slaves by their masters, and to seize property of the offender for the purpose. XVI. imposes death upon all persons wilfully killing a slave, and heavy fines for unusual and immoderate punishment of slaves. In the consolidated statutes of Louisiana, 1852, art. *Slaves*, we see (p. 323) that disabled, or old slaves, shall be provided for by their masters. "It shall be the duty of masters to procure sick slaves all spiritual and temporal assistance." Old slaves shall not be sold from their children. Children under ten shall not be separated from their parents, etc., etc. (p. 343.) Evidence of slaves may be received on the trial of slaves. In the Louisiana Gazette, as far back as 1806, now before us, there is an advertisement of a slave to be sold by public authority, in consequence of her being ill-treated and not properly provided for by her present master. But the whole spirit of the slave system of Louisiana is mild and equitable.—EDITOR.

SHERIFF'S SALE.—Will be sold at the Principal, on Thursday, 5th September, 1805, a negro wench, named Mary, belonging to Mr. De Lavine, in consequence of the maltreatment of her master.

By order of the Judge of the County Court of Orleans. GEO. T. ROSS, Sheriff.

August 13th, 1805.

master. In either case, in justice to the slave, and to secure him, as much as possible, from such attempts, the tempter should receive condign punishment. We believe the general opinion is against us, but, as the *friend of the slave*, we would desire to continue the act in force. It is our duty, as far as possible, to protect our slave from all such acts of oppression, injustice, or interference, as his position makes him peculiarly liable to. Therefore, as the guiding and directing power, taking upon ourselves the responsibility in so far as we take the direction of his action, we should save him so far as in our power lies from the snares of the tempter. Our reviewer gives sundry quotations (or at least purporting to be such) from the laws of other states, all more or less ferocious, and which, not having a general law-library at hand, it is impossible for us either to confirm or refute; but we certainly have a right to conclude, in a series of assertions, that when the first two are so utterly false as we have proved the above to be, there is little faith to be attached to any of them.

The sweeping assertion so constantly made that our laws are, in their general bearing, cruel or neglectful of the slave is entirely unfounded. The truth is, that our laws are most carefully protective of the slave. Our reviewer quotes from a nameless correspondent, "a Barbadian by birth, who has himself owned slaves," to the following effect:

"The picture of American slavery, in Uncle Tom, is not the less faithful, because a stranger, visiting the country sees so little of it; and because the *general* conduct of slave-owners may be humane. The worst cases no one sees. Slavery was mitigated in our West Indian colonies by the small size of the islands and the check of public opinion, which reaches every corner. But in the remote districts of America, and even of Jamaica, what may and must have taken place when every master was a law to himself?"

This reasoning is funny enough. What is the amount of it? When a man gets out of the reach of legal authority, in *remote districts*, where neither law nor public opinion can reach him, it is possible for him to commit crimes, for which, were he within the grasp of the law, he would be punished. *Therefore* the laws are bad. *The worst cases no one sees!* (how the gentleman finds out their ex

istence it is hard to determine, but let us see his corollary,) *therefore* the system is heinous which does not punish them. *The general conduct of slave-owners is, it is acknowledged, humane—but, as it is possible that there may be some very wicked individuals in some very remote districts, where "the master is a law to himself," therefore the laws which endeavor to take such master under their cognizance are heinous and infamous.* The facts in the gentleman's letter are entirely laudatory of our system. For the *imaginary horrors*, not we, but himself, must be answerable. Those crimes that *no one sees*, enjoy, unfortunately, all the world over, impunity from punishment. Would the reviewer and his Barbadian friend invent a remedy for this evil, they would certainly immortalize themselves. Let us imagine such a style of reasoning applied to any system but our own, and where is the egregious fool to receive it? Nothing goes farther to prove the ignorant vehemence of our accusers than such blind argument. The reviewer then goes on to cite from "the disgusting details of facts taken from legal documents;" "information sworn before the House of Commons, on occasion of the inquiry into the state of the West Indian Colonies." We might easily plead here that West Indian slavery is not our slavery, and that the laws of England, not ours, were answerable for the atrocities there described. But we will be more just to human nature. These facts are generally as false as those imputed to the working of the system with us. The statements there adduced bear upon their face the impress of irrationality—many of them are *physically* impossible, and, for the rest, it is *morally* impossible that any people should so combine the traits of civilization and brutal barbarism. One or the other must necessarily be put down. A people is civilized or barbarous. In the transition state of semi-civilization they may be neither entirely, but to be both is impossible. A nation must either rise to the one or sink to the other condition. We do not deny that a nation of men may be morally brutes; but we do deny that a nation of civilized and enlightened Christian men—fellow-citizens of Englishmen of the nineteenth century, can be so. Further: has our reviewer ever seen or heard of a work entitled "The West Indian Colonies; the calumnies and misrepresentations circu-

lated against them by the Edinburgh Review, Mr. Clarkson, Mr. Copper, &c., examined and refuted by James McQueen," and published in London, A. D., 1824? If ever corrupt witnessses and bitter, prejudiced falsehood, were held up to shame and obloquy, here we have damning proof against the so-called reformers, who, to satisfy a malevolent spite, or to gratify a sentimental whim, rushed headlong to the ruin of an innocent and prosperous people. We think it is Sterne who has beautifully remarked that "when it is once determined that a lamb shall be offered up, there may be sticks enough found under any hedge to complete the sacrifice." Jamaica was doomed (*delenda est Carthago*), and the scarce vital wrecks of her once triumphant prosperity now alone remain to show what fanatics can accomplish. But, says the reviewer, we cite *legal documents*. Ah! that is distressing, and we must give way before such authority, however the darkest perjury may have been concerned in the concocting of them. We are then condemned in the case of our brethren of Jamaica. *Legal documents* cannot be disputed.

"But," says somebody, "one of the maxims which the devil in a late visit upon earth left to his disciples is, when once you have got up, kick the stool from under you." Our reviewer evidently thinks himself safely mounted now, and, Lord! what a hurry he is in to kick away the stool of legal documents! Some half-dozen pages or so after his remarks upon Jamaica documents, having got his readers into a fine swing of sentimental horrors, he thinks apparently it is high time to follow the advice of the Rev. gentleman from the lower regions, and with a quick glance round—not, we presume, without a furtive wink at the knowing ones—he gives a most vigorous kick at the said stool, just as an unfortunate wight on the opposite side of the argument was triumphantly climbing thereon.

"An American writer," he exclaims indignantly, "An American writer of a book, entitled *England's Glory and her Shame*, gives the result of his observations during a tour in the manufacturing districts of England, and draws a most appalling picture of the misery and degradation of the manufacturers, to the great consolation, no doubt, of the American slave-owners, who are thus left satisfied



that if slavery is a bad thing, there is no alternative but something worse. Now, we happen to have ascertained, through the medium of a gentleman, who personally knew the author, that he *set foot* in Europe, but concocted his work partly from blue-books, and, perhaps, partly from imagination. It must however be added, in fairness to the author, that he was probably not aware of the amount of misrepresentation some of these blue-books contain. They are the reports of the evidence taken before the committee on the ten-hours' bill; a work which too much resembled a supposed botanical examination of a certain farm and garden, resulting in a collection of a few nettles out of one field, and four or five thistles out of another, and a handful of groundsel from the garden, representing these as *the produce of the estate*."

So much for *legal documents*. Excellent they are against the slave-holder, but o' the other side—bah! kick the stool over, and lo! your antagonist is sprawling on his back. And so Jamaica witnesses were right, and ten-hours' bill witnesses were wrong. Documents here—documents there. White, they are; presto, black. True, they are; presto, false. Pretty jugglery! and worthy of all admiration!

Too truly has Mr. McQueen remarked in his work upon Jamaica, of which we but now made mention, that "the French Revolution, which, with its infamous principles, convulsed the world, boasted to have been built upon the very foundations on which Mr. Clarkson grounds his charge against the West India Colonies, namely, '*Nature and Reason*!' Nature and Reason are truly high authorities, but too often, like the cheating oracles of old, do they render a doubtful response, the erroneous interpretation of which becomes a snare to the feet, and a pit of destruction to the hasty interpreter of destiny. Long and laborious is the task of him who would read the truth. Like the worshipper at the cave of Trophonius, a life-long sadness, a wearing out of soul and body, in the eager pursuit of the great reality, is the price to be paid for its acquisition. The enthusiast seldom reaches it.—Blindly zealous, ignorantly active, in proportion as he has the least certain foundation for his opinions, he defends them with impulsive fervor; stirs, in fanatic haste, the bubbling cauldron of

society, little heeding what poisonous skum and froth may thus be floated to the surface; and lauds himself at last, like a Robespierre, or his petty imitators in revolutionizing, a Buxton, a Clarkson, or a Stevens, even in the chaotic ruin which his madness has effected. France rose from her ashes to run a new course of greatness and of madness. For Jamaica, alas! there seems no phoenix life."

Our reviewers and commentators generally lay a constant stress upon the "uncontrolled power" which they suppose the slave-owner to possess. We would fain convince them that in truth no such power exists. This bugbear is the offspring of their own distempered imagination.

"Although slaves, by the Act of 1740, are declared to be chattels personal, yet they are also, in our law, considered as *persons* with many *rights and liabilities*, civil and criminal." (Vide Negro Law of South Carolina, collected and digested by J. B. O'Neill, chapter 2d, section 11th.)

"By the Act of 1821, the murder of a slave is declared to be a felony, without the benefit of clergy." (Ib. ib. section 15.)

"To constitute the murder of a slave, no other ingredients are necessary than such as enter into the offence of murder at common law. So the killing on sudden heat and passion is the same as manslaughter." (Ib. ib. section 16.)

"An attempt to kill and murder a slave by shooting at him, held to be a misdemeanor (State vs. Mann), and indictable as assault with intent to kill and murder." (Ib. ib. section 17.)

"The *unlawful* whipping or beating of any slave, without sufficient provocation, by word, or act, is a misdemeanor, and subjects the offender, on conviction, to imprisonment not exceeding 6 months, and a fine not exceeding \$500. (Ib. ib. section 18.)

"The Act of 1740, requires the owners of slaves to provide them with sufficient clothing, covering, and food; and if they should fail to do so, the owners, respectively, are declared to be liable to be informed against, subjected to fine, &c. (Ib. ib. section 25.)

"It is the settled law of this state,—that an owner cannot abandon a slave needing either medical treatment, care, food, or raiment. If he does, he will be

liable to any one who may furnish the same." (lb. ib. section 27.)

"By act of 1740, slaves are protected from labor on the Sabbath-day. The violation of the law in this respect subjects the offender to a fine of £5 current money, equal in value to \$3.70 for every slave so worked." (lb. ib. section 28.)\*

Surely these should suffice to show that the owner's power is not "*uncontrolled*." However he may evade the law when he hides himself in the "remote districts" of which the Barbadian ex-planter discourses, he is kept in check so long as the arm of the law is long enough to reach him. We presume that every country has some point within its limits, where law penetrates with difficulty. England, too, has her moors and her high-roads; aye, and—perhaps worse than either—the purblind alleys of her great cities, where crime boldly treads, or cunningly hides herself. But surely not therefore shall we say, because her laws are sometimes inefficient, that all are iniquitous. Our reviewer triumphantly remarks that the opponents of Mrs. Stowe, in not denying the *possibility*, virtually admit the truth of her statements. Upon the same principle of argument, what fearful pictures might as *possibilities* be deduced from the institutions of every existing state of society! What law,—what bond,—what tie,—might not be abolished if *possible* abuse were sufficient to condemn it? Ruler and subject,—servant and master,—parent and child,—husband and wife,—cast all to the winds! These may be, nay, more,—these *are* all abused,—*daily* abused,—*brutally* abused. "Nature and Reason!" cries the old school of god-improvers. "Higher-law!" responds the new. On! on! what next? Where shall we destroy? Say ye, "what next?" Ask ye "where?" Nay, 'tis a foolish prejudice to doubt. Sweep every thing! everywhere! The Goth and the Vandal of old found something to spare,—something to respect. Not so our innovators. *Excelsior!* Communism and Fraternity!—Barbarism and Brutality! God of Heaven! pity this world which Thou hast made!

The reviewer says "there is a plain admission on the part of the Slave State Legislatures that there is nothing that

can be inflicted on a man in this life worse than slavery in the fact that the punishment affixed to crimes committed by the slaves is *always* death. Cases of arson, theft, and burglary, which would be comparatively lightly dealt with, if committed by white men, are all death to the slave." And then comes a flourish from the "Cincinnati Herald," ending with a marvelously ferocious, "He can be killed. Let him be killed."

"We should very much like to know," as the old song saith, whether our reviewer means to claim exemption from all response and dispute, for himself as well as for Mrs. Stowe, on the plea of the unattackableness of *works of fiction*. Is his article, too, a so-called work of fiction? Verily; whether or not he claim for it the merit, we must give our mite of approbation to the inventive genius therein displayed. Truly, it is full of "most quaint and admirable inventions." For fear, however, that some simple block-heads should really imagine that our talented brother of the quill meant these witty sallies to be taken as literal truth, we will, for the benefit of such dunder-pates, answer his statements seriously. The reviewer will find, by a glance at the statutes of England, that arson and burglary are both in his own happy land punishable with *death*. In most of our states, we believe,—and certainly in South Carolina, from which we write,—the old English law is for these crimes retained in force, alike for *white and black*. For theft, we have abolished the more severe punishment still retained by English law, (which frequently, as the learned reviewer no doubt knows, pronounces death as the penalty for the purloining of a few shillings' worth of property,) and have substituted, according to the offence, lighter punishment, alike for *white and black*. For both, the legal penalty is the same. One difference, however, we must acknowledge. While the law is the same for both, there is, it must be confessed, great inequality in the administering of it. Justice is no longer even-handed. One side may often escape the law, which rigorously pursues the other. But which is it? We fear our transatlantic friends will hardly credit us, when we answer: *The negro*. And yet the thing explains itself easily enough! The white man, encroaching upon the rights of society, becomes a public nuisance, which it is

\* But for the complete slave laws of South Carolina and other Southern States, see De Bow's Industrial Resources, Art. "Slavery."

necessary to keep in check, and the only means of so doing is by such bodily restraint and suffering as shall hold him in fear of future transgression. It is, therefore, to the interest of society that he should be punished, and he is punished accordingly. The negro, under similar circumstances, will often have his master to stand between him and the law. For offences not too notoriously criminal, indemnification from the master to the injured person, oftentimes ends the affair altogether. Where the state as prosecutor is not forced to take cognizance of the offence, the master can frequently buy off individual prosecution, and both interest and humanity incline him to do so. Interest, because the slave, unfeebled by imprisonment and stripes, is a valuable property for which he is willing to pay; humanity, because the slave, in his childlike, dependent position, becomes to him a part of self, which he would rather correct with the mercy of a father than the severity of a judge. He buys him off therefore. Society is satisfied, because the master thus renders himself the virtual sponsor of the slave, making it his own interest to prevent further misdeemeanor. The negro gets his whipping, goes home to warm himself by his fire, and perhaps laugh in his sleeve at "Massa," who thinks, "dat kind o' lashin ebber hut nigger," while the white man bears the double infliction of imprisonment and stripes. In England, for a similar offence, if mercy so tempered justice, (as we know it now oftentimes does,) so far as to spare life, the offender is glad with that to escape, banished from hearth and home, wife and children, a disgraced exile to — he knows not whither.

The reviewer gives what he calls a digest of our slave-laws,—containing thirteen propositions, almost every one of which either places things in their falsest light, or are in their grossest statements utterly untrue. His proposition that the labor of the slave is compulsory and uncompensated, we answer by saying that he receives a very much larger compensation in actual value, in housing, in food, and in raiment, than the half-starved artisan of many a proud metropolis. He is, it is true, obliged, in proper weather and when in health, to do his work. He has not the right by idleness or drunkenness to starve his family for

the indulgence of his own vices; but he is, in return for this constraint, insured a comfortable maintenance for himself and family under all circumstances; in sickness and in health; in feeble youth and in tottering age; through good report and through evil report. Even in his vices he is saved from that lowest degradation of unprotected misery which the white man must meet. The lowest slave cannot sink to the degradation of the outcast white.

"The amount of toil, the time allowed for rest, are dictated solely by the master."

This is untrue. The law, as we have shown, protects the slave from Sabbath-day labor, and another section (vide O'Neill's Digest, chap. 2d, section 29), part of an old English act, limits his labor to from 14 to 15 hours per day. The time here allotted for labor is, however, so much more than is now required of the slave that the law is in fact of non-effect. The working hours are in South Carolina from 8 to 12, varying with the season and exigencies of the crop, with occasional intermission of holidays and half holidays, which, if "dictated solely by the master," are not, we presume, on that account to be considered as obnoxious. If the duchesses of Stafford-house could be instrumental in giving to each of their tenants an occasional merry holiday, it is scarcely to be presumed that their vassals would take it in dudgeon, because inconsistent with their dignity as men.

"He may be separated from his family." "He can make no contracts, has no legal right to property."

And yet, as a *fact*, there is less separation among negro families than among whites. Starvation drives harder than the hardest master. The property of the slave, for property he always to a certain extent has, he holds by a stronger tenure, upheld as he is by his master's protection, than many a poor freeman who, by taxes and tithes, individual trickery and legal frauds, finds himself juggled out of every right but that of dying unprotected, grateful to the disease which opens his prison door.

"He cannot bear witness against the white man."

Granted—and properly cannot—not would the witness of a similar class be taken as of much weight in England against their aristocratic masters. Every

man in England is, legally, free to say what he pleases, but dares any man say that there is not a gag upon the mouth of the ignorant and illiterate poor? that his witness is of material weight against his lordly ruler? The word of the law matters little, and whatever its letter may be, the testimony of a lower and therefore of necessity a jealous class—of an ignorant and therefore of necessity an easily corruptible class—is and should always be taken with a reservation. Upon the same judicious principle of guarding against jealousy, corruption and prejudice, the English law requires that a man should be judged by his peers. A man of the people cannot sit upon a jury to judge the guilt of a noble. The jealousies of rank as well as the prejudice of ignorance must be guarded against. So far we grant, but the reviewer adds, to the clause quoted by us, that slaves cannot bear witness against the white man when “such testimony would be for the benefit of a slave; but they may give testimony against a *felon-slave*, or free colored man, even in cases affecting life, if the master is to reap the advantage of it.”

Certainly we hence to conclude, without any unfair reading, that he can give such testimony for the benefit of a white man, and that he can only give testimony against the slave when his master is to reap the advantage. Both propositions are equally false. He can never bear witness against a white man, and can always do so against a negro, although in either case his witnessing, or his abstinence from witnessing, might be to the utter ruin of his master.

“The slave may be punished at his master’s discretion, without trial, without any means of legal redress, whether his offence be real or imaginary, and the master can transfer the same despotic power to any person or persons he may choose to appoint.”

We have above quoted an act showing that whipping without sufficient provocation is a punishable misdemeanor. Another act (vide O’Neill’s Digest, chapter ii. section 21) prescribes the punishment for maiming or “any other cruel punishment.” “This provision, it has been held, extends to any cruel beating of a slave.”

“The slave (says the reviewer) not being allowed to resist a white man, under any circumstances, his only safety

consists in the fact that his owner may bring suit and recover the price of his body, in case his life is taken.”

This is wilfully false. Our law necessarily forbids, as a general rule, the striking of a white man by a negro, unless under command, or in defence of his master. The negro, whether bond or free, cannot therefore be guilty of manslaughter. In killing a white man, he therefore becomes always guilty of murder, unless the case falls, as many are judged to do, under the head of excusable homicide. An express act too gives to the courts, trying any negro under the law of murder, the power, when any favorable circumstances appear, to mitigate his punishment. (Vide O’Neill’s Digest, Chapter iii.) It is intentional misrepresentation of this law to say that a negro must stand still and be murdered, that his master may recover the price of his body. No negro defending himself against a murderous attack would be held guilty. The case would come under the act as excusable homicide. We have already shown that the murder of a negro is equally punishable with that of a white man, and his master, or any other being proved guilty, may be hung for it.

“The slave is entirely unprotected in his domestic relations.”

False again. He is protected by the master and through the master.

“The operation of the laws tends to deprive slaves of religious instruction and consolation.”

Utterly false. No law, having to the smallest extent any such tendency, is to be found in our whole collection of statutes. The habit of our country is to admit slaves to all places of worship, certain parts of churches being generally set aside for them, though we have seen, in some of our handsomest and most frequented churches, old family servants seated in front of their masters and mistresses along the aisles, or at the foot of the pulpit or the altar. Places of worship are, besides, frequently built by owners for their special accommodation.\*

“What is a trifling fault in a white man is considered highly criminal in a slave. The same offences which cost a white man a few dollars only are punishable in the negro with death.”

\* There are many in New-Orleans. Our planters frequently employ regular chaplains to their slaves.



False as the rest. We have already answered a similar accusation above.

"The whole power of the law is exerted to keep slaves in a state of the lowest ignorance."

False, again. There is a law of South Carolina, we do not know how far extending to other states, forbidding that slaves should be taught to read. For ourselves, we consider this act as one which would be better repealed as useless and of non-effect. Its object was to prevent the circulation of incendiary writings. To this purpose, however, it is worse than ineffectual. It does not prevent and has the usual effect of exciting a desire for forbidden fruit. Still, even with this impulse, book-learning is so contrary to negro-nature, that there is the smallest possible disposition to seek it, although it is notorious with us that every negro, who chooses to take the trouble to learn, may be taught to read in spite of the law, and very generally by the children even of his owners. The law is based upon a false principle, inasmuch as it was intended for an object to which it must necessarily prove inefficient, and, like all such, as an unfailing consequence, falls of itself dead, without the legal form of repeal. Granting, however, that it were in full force, would it in fact do more than to place the negro on a level with the corresponding classes of other nations? How much book-learning does a man get, when rest and sleep must be cheated of their dues to fill the hungry stomach by manual toil? Ignorance moreover does not consist in the mere deficiency of knowledge in one's spelling-book. The slave-negro of our United States, in spite of his inferiority of race, stands higher in the scale of being, is better informed in the duties of life, more polished and humanized by association—in short, is the higher man, than the wretched offcasts of a nobler race which crowd the streets and lanes of every densely populated metropolis. Our reviewer sneers at us that slavery can only be sustained by the help of the law; that law must "come in to defend and maintain it." If this be so, he only proves that slavery is *not* barbarism,—is *not* despotic power, —is *not* lawless might. Every institution of civilized society requires to be maintained and defended by law;—maintained and defended against lawless barbarism and brutal force. This argu-

ment, therefore, works entirely in our favor, but we think that such an assertion claims too much. Slavery does exist quite independently of law, and exists, too, in a form scarcely, we presume, more soothing than ours to the feelings of our friends and advisers the Stafford-house ladies and North British reviewers. They will hardly contend that it is law which gives his majesty of Dahomy the right to roast his slaves, as we have noticed above. Law is the defence of the weak against the strong. What need of law, where power is supreme? "Thus far shalt thou go and no farther," is the fiat of law. Bad laws are weak laws, inefficient laws. They do not sufficiently protect, and therefore are they bad. An oppressive law is so, not because there is in the law any power of oppression, but because the individual or party imposing it, has the *might* which he or they choose to abuse, and there is no power in the law sufficiently strong to keep them in check. The despot who makes a law giving to himself the right of confiscating the property of his subjects under certain circumstances, however whimsical or tyrannical, does not exercise his confiscations in right of the power given by the law, but by the power which is inherent in himself, his circumstances or position; and the law, even such as it is, is a virtual acknowledgment of some limit to that power. He does not confiscate under all circumstances, but under such and such. The government imposing an unjust law does so, not through any power of the law, but because, having the superior might which enables it to enforce an unjust demand, it will not allow the law to be made sufficiently strong to check its rapacity. The wolf robs, not through the law, but through want of the law. Law is the voice of reason curbing the rule of might. It is never a bestower of power, but a check, however feeble and inefficient that check may be. The nation which rebels against oppressive laws, combats not for the abolition, but for the better regulating of law. A revolution which seeks to abolish law, must end necessarily in despotism. Perfect codes of law are not to be looked for in an imperfect world, and ours are doubtless faulty enough. It is something, however, to know, that they are no worse than those of contemporary nations, and that in their results the sum

of comfort and enjoyment is at least as great for humanity as under any other system.

Here again we subject ourselves to the sneers of the reviewer, who, because a common ground of defence with us, is to show how much the position of our negro is preferable to that of the white slave of other countries, remarks: "The way that this argument is pushed would seem to imply that *better* must mean always *good*." Truly this is laughable enough. If *better* does not mean always *good*, it certainly does mean always *better*; and it would be the part of a madman to abandon *better* because it was not *good*, and to take *worse* instead. It is a most legitimate and a strong argument to prove that, however we must acknowledge some faults in a system, there is in the casting up of results none other found to surpass it. *Pro optimo est minime malus*.

The reviewer argues that with the freeman (so-called) "no legislative restriction sets any limit to his improvement." This is not exactly true; but granting it were so, want, poverty and starvation set frightful barriers, to overleap which, no legislative permit gives the power. Where is the master so hard as poverty? where the driver so pitiless as starvation? The average condition of man under any government is a pretty fair criterion of the encouragement which such government gives to his improvement. A strange inconsistency in the arguments of negrophilists generally is a constant lamentation over the degradation of the negro, while, if we are to believe their descriptions of negro character, nothing can approach nearer perfection. Take, for instance, Mrs. Stowe's great work, which, like the little leaven that leaveneth the whole loaf, has set fermenting the entire mass of rabid fanaticism in two hemispheres, and what saintly pictures does it not represent. "If (remarks the 'Journal of Commerce') these characters are fair types, as the writer doubtless intended them to be, of the mass of southern slaves, we confess that we have abundant reason for heartily wishing that all Africa were under a tutelage that would develop so much of Christian symmetry of character. Why employ missionaries to spend their years among the malaria of the African continent, if the southern system of slavery brings out such rare and beautiful

models of moral excellence?" Laud and glory should, indeed, be to the system which could produce such characters. Mrs. Stowe has, however, mistaken her ground. Her black angels are as hard to find as her white devils; both being creations whose existence belongs to the *terra incognita* of her own brain. The negro is neither the strangely perfect, delicately sensitive being thus described at one moment by the negrophilists, nor yet the degraded brute which in the next breath they would represent him. The negro is not a degraded, but essentially a lower man. By nature a grown-up child, he requires the authority and the indulgence, the checks and the privileges accorded to his younger prototype. Such he enjoys under our system; a system not perfect, but perfectionable, and requiring only to be let alone in its natural progress to develop itself to fuller proportions of beauty and symmetry.

Our "North British" reviewer devotes some pages to prove that the slave does not like slavery, and adduces advertisements, &c., to convince the world that he frequently attempts to escape from it. We should be delighted to discover that there was any locality or condition in life, where every individual in it liked his position. Does the Irish beggar, sleeping in his ditch, like his? Does the starving artisan of England like his? Does the hungry mother, of the same prosperous land, who poisons her babe, that the survivors may for a time subsist upon the paltry pension of a burial club, like hers? Such fearful instances may stand against scores of advertisements, and whole columns of falsehood from abolition papers to boot. Few are satisfied in this world, even amongst the so-called happy.

"Against our peace we arm our will;  
Amidst our plenty, something still  
For houses, horses, pictures, planting,  
To thee, to me, to him, is wanting:  
That cruel something unpossessed  
Corrodes and leavens all the rest."

It would be strange indeed if the whole body of negro slaves were to form the great exception to this universal longing of mankind. Taking them for all in all, there is no class of men in which a larger proportion can be found to be satisfied. The only wonder is that, with the whole pack of abolition hounds and new-light hunters in full cry after them, there is

not tenfold the discontent and uneasiness that really exists. "What American, North or South," triumphantly asks the reviewer, "would like to change places with the slave?" What scaly inhabitant of the deep, O most sapient brother, or the reviewing brotherhood, would like to change places with an oyster? and yet oysters *are*, and God made them; and, although the sportive denizen of the ocean, as he glances to and fro through its briny recesses, might not fancy being suddenly caught by the tail and glued down in some muddy shoal or gloomy submarine recess, yet have we a fair right to conclude that, as the oyster has, as evidently as his more sprightly brother of the deep, his object and destiny in existence, so is he by nature suited to its functions and its contingencies; and yet we might imagine the poor devil of an oyster made exceedingly uneasy in his position, should some whispering demon of mischief set up a submarine school of communism, and lecture on the propriety of general abolition. "Liberty! liberty!" cries the oyster; "am I too not a brother of the deep?" Alas! what knows he of liberty! He fancies that he need but be released from that rock, and, without further effort, he may skim the waves, or plunge, sporting, beneath the billows. "Liberty from these cursed bonds!" exclaims the agitator. "Liberty!" echoes his deluded victim. Behold! if the bond be burst, has he found liberty? Nay, rather destruction. True liberty consists but in the freedom to exercise those faculties which God has given, and the oyster, upon his rock, is as free as his nature permits him to be.

As regards negro-nature, he who runs may read. The negro (as a people) *cannot* be free. He has not the faculty of freedom. In no age and in no land has he lived free from restraint, except as the savage. Scarcely by the grossest quibble upon words can the imbruted savage, in his native wilds, be called a freeman. Does he promise better under England's pet experiment of enfranchisement in Jamaica? He has been watched over, helped—and what is the result? So long as England will make his clothes and bake his bread, he will wear the one and eat the other; but (we quote from the London Times).—

"Our legislation has been dictated by the presumed necessities of the African

slave. After the emancipation act, a large charge was assessed upon the colony in aid of civil and religious institutions for the benefit of the enfranchised negro, and it was hoped that these colored subjects of the British Crown would soon be assimilated to their fellow-citizens. From all the information which reaches us, no less than from the visible probabilities of the case, we are constrained to believe that these hopes have been falsified. The negro has not acquired with his freedom any habits of industry or morality. His independence is little better than that of an uncaptured brute. Having accepted few of the restraints of civilization, he is amenable to few of its necessities; and the wants of his nature are so easily satisfied, that, at the current rate of wages, he is called upon for nothing but fitful and desultory exertion. The blacks, therefore, instead of becoming intelligent husbandmen, have become vagrants and squatters, and it is now apprehended, with the failure of cultivation in the island, will come the failure of its resources for instructing or controlling its population. So imminent does this consummation appear that memorials have been signed by classes of colonial society hitherto standing aloof from politics, and not only the bench and the bar, but the bishops, clergy and ministers of all denominations in the island, without exception, have recorded their conviction that, in absence of timely relief, the religious and educational institutions of the island must be abandoned, and the masses of the population retrograde to barbarism."

Again, we ask, will any quibble of words descend low enough to argue that this barbaric license is liberty?

But the most fairly tried experiment of negro independence in modern days, is the great empire of Hayti, concerning which we have lately had some most edifying developments. We refer to the correspondence of R. M. Walsh, Esq., late commissioner of the United States to Hayti. Mr. Walsh, who is a Pennsylvanian, is, we must premise, certainly not to be suspected of any bias in favor of Southern institutions. Not only the locality of his birth and education would incline him to entirely opposite predilections, but, very certainly, no one with such a bias could for a moment think of accepting such a position as the one occupied by this gentleman when writing

to our Secretary of State the series of letters from one of which we make our extracts. The whole correspondence is such a *bijou* in its way that it is well worth the study of the world; quite a Koh-i-noor, which we specially recommend to the attention of Stafford-house. Let the parliament of ladies pronounce, if they dare, in favor of his supremely disgusting *nigger* majesty, Faustin Soulouque. We have space only for one or two short extracts, showing the impressions of an unprejudiced observer regarding the condition of the country and the general nature and improbability of its inhabitants. Mr. Walsh writes to the then Secretary of State, Hon. Mr. Webster:—

"I trust, sir, you will pardon me if I sometimes wander from the serious tone appropriate to a dispatch, but it is difficult to preserve one's gravity with so absurd a caricature of civilization before one's eyes as is here exhibited in every shape.

"Nothing saves these people from being infinitely ridiculous but the circumstance of their being often supremely disgusting by their fearful atrocities. The change from a ludicrous farce to a bloody tragedy is here as frequent as it is terrible; and the smiles which the former irresistibly provoke, can only be repressed by the sickening sensations occasioned by the latter.

"It is a conviction which has been forced upon me by what I have learned here, that negroes only cease to be children when they degenerate into savages. As long as they happen to be in a genial mood it is the rattle and the straw by which they are tickled and pleased; and when their passions are once aroused, the most potent weapons of subjugation can alone prevent the most horrible evils. A residence here, however brief, must cause the most determined philanthropist to entertain serious doubts of the possibility of their ever attaining the full stature of intellectual and civilized manhood, unless some miraculous interposition is vouchsafed in their behalf. In proportion as the recollections and traditions of the old colonial civilization are fading away, and the imitative propensity, which is so strong a characteristic of the African, is losing its opportunities of exercise, the black inhabitants of Hayti are reverting to the primitive state from which they were elevated by con-

tact with the whites—a race whose innate superiority would seem to be abundantly proved by the mere fact that it is approaching the goal of mental progress, while the other has scarcely made a step in advance of the position in which it was originally placed. It is among the mulattoes alone, as a general rule, that intelligence and education are to be found; but they are neither sufficiently numerous, nor virtuous, nor enlightened, to do more than diminish the rapidity of the nation's descent, and every day accelerates the inevitable capacity by lessening their influence and strength.

"The contrast between the picture which is now presented by this country and that which it exhibited when under the dominion of the French, affords a melancholy confirmation of what I have said. It was then indeed an "exulting and abounding" land—a land literally flowing with milk and honey; now, it might be affirmed without extravagance, that where it is not an arid and desolate waste, it is flooded with the waters of bitterness, or covered with noisome and poisonous weeds."

"The government, in spite of its constitutional forms, is a despotism of the most ignorant, corrupt and vicious description, with a military establishment so enormous that, while it absorbs the largest portion of the revenue for its support, it dries up the very sources of national prosperity, by depriving the fields of their necessary laborers, to fill the town with pestilent hordes of depraved and irreclaimable idlers. The treasury is bankrupt, and every species of profligate and ruinous expedient is resorted to, for the purpose of obtaining the means of gratifying an insane passion for frivolous expenditure. A great portion of the public revenue is wasted upon the personal vanities of the emperor, and his ridiculous efforts to surround himself with a splendor which he fancies to be pre-eminently imperial. It is a fact, that the same legislature which voted him several hundreds of thousands of francs for some absurd costume, refused an appropriation of twenty-five thousand francs for public schools. The population for the most part is immersed in Cimmerian darkness that can never be pierced by the few and feeble rays which emanate from the higher portions of the social system, whilst there is a constant fermentation of jealousies and antipathies

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between the great majority and the only class at all capable of guiding the destinies of the land which threaten at every moment to shatter the political vessel in which they are so perilously working. As to the refining and elevating influences of civilized life—the influences of religion, of literature, of science, of art—they do not exert the least practical sway, even if they can be said to exist at all. The priests of the altar set the worst examples of every kind of vice, and are universally mere adventurers, disowned by the church, who alone can come here in consequence of the assumption by the Emperor of ecclesiastical authority, which militates with that of the Roman pontiff. The press is shackled to such a degree as to prevent the least freedom of opinion, and people are afraid to give utterance, even in confidential conversation, to aught that may be tortured into the slightest criticism upon the action of the government.

"In short, the combination of evil and destructive elements is such, that the ultimate regeneration of the Haytians seems to me to be the wildest of Utopian dreams. Dismal as this picture may appear, its coloring is not exaggerated. It is as faithful a representation as I can sketch of the general aspect of this miserable country—a country where God has done everything to make his creature happy, and where the creature is doing everything to mar the work of God."

What is this but a rapid descent to barbarism, faintly combated by the relics of a fast-dying semi-civilization? Such is and has ever been the fate of the negro when left to his own guidance. Childlike in intellect he needs a perpetual leading-string. Under the dominion of the white man among us, as formerly in Hayti, with the imitativeness, careless docility and disposition to dependance, which form a part of his childlike nature, he follows in the track of his master and becomes the half-enlightened, useful, and contented being exhibited under our slave system. Set him free from the wholesome check of authority, and behold what he must be.

We have made throughout this article no reference to the important subjects of cotton, sugar, coffee, &c., without which productions the world would now get on but badly. Cotton is, for England particularly, of such vital importance, that the cessation of two crops from America

would set her in the blaze of revolution. Do our philanthropists contemplate this among the results of emancipation? Or do they fancy that the emancipated negro of the United States will grow their cotton better than those of Jamaica and St. Domingo have done their sugar and coffee? We have made no reference to this great point in the question, because we have turned our argument principally to combat the accusations of cruelty and abstract injustice brought against our system, and are anxious to show that, quite independently of the benefit accruing to the white man, the negro is happier, *ex necessitate rei*, in his position with us, than is possible in any other circumstances. Amalgamation being put (as we presume the bitterest of our antagonists will allow us to do) out of the question, what must become of him if released from this salutary bondage? Let the ladies of Stafford-house deliberate upon this question. Let them contemplate, if they can, the flood of barbarism which, following their wished-for measure of emancipation, would inundate the world. For, strange to say, at this moment, upon the negro and negro slavery depends all that the world has of highest civilization. America in ruins—England in revolution—what becomes of the world? Ladies, at your next meeting, think of this, and then, if you dare, send your incendiary appeals across the Atlantic to try whether, like a nation of Tarpeias, we women of America can be either frightened, bribed, or flattered, to our country's ruin.

And now, "glory to God in the highest—on earth peace, and good-will toward men." Ladies of Stafford-house, thus you end your appeal; thus, too, dare we. Our tongue shrinks not the ordeal. We hold out to you the right hand of fellowship; we say to you, as women, slander not so your sex as to consent to believe, on the blind testimony of careless and misinformed, if not mischievous scribblers, the libels which you have so thoughtlessly accredited. Are we mothers without mothers' hearts? Are we wives, sisters and daughters, yet have no heart-throb for those mothers, wives, sisters and daughters whom Providence has committed to our supervising care? Are we alone marked out by nature as devoid of that God-given woman instinct whose privilege it is to pity and to soothe? Believe us, no! Woman is woman still,

and were this system what you represent it, long since would her heart have risen against it, and with pleading tears and earnest prayer, she would have taught the son of her bosom that truth is nobler than gain, and humanity better than power. The outspring of a mother's heart (ladies, though ye be duchesses and countesses, have ye not felt it?) cannot limit itself to her own babes, and we who watch and sympathize with the sick and the mourner, must learn to love (in Christian charity, and human brotherhood, to love) these our humble friends and close dependents. We cannot shirk our poor, nor bid them betake themselves to asylums and houses of refuge. We dare not (whether in law or conscience, we dare not) shuffle them off upon town-councils, beadles, and constables. We have no deputy work, nor can we ease our consciences that our charity is done by substitute. With our own hand we relieve, with our own heart we sympathize; and, believe us, ladies, if you have never tried it, go amongst the lowly; nurse one poor sufferer through his agony; with your own hand bathe the anguished brow—with your own eye watch the flickering breath, and you will perchance find that one act of practical charity more softens the heart than a thousand theories for foreign missions and slave emancipation. Look, ladies, at the slave at your own door; the Lazarus at the gate of Dives. Though decorously excluded from the princely gates of Stafford-house, turn but a few corners and you will find the thronging multitudes of misery. Blind alleys are here, damp cellars, filthy garrets, the stench and the wretchedness and the vice of which are scarcely decent for the investigations of gentle ladies; hells, to which our poorest negro hut would present a cheerful and a blessed contrast. England, your own proud, happy England, teems with wretchedness. We speak not of her Indian coolies crushed by the iron rule of conquest; we speak not of her Kaffir foes fast disappearing from existence to make way for Saxon laws; we speak not now even of her wretched Irish emigrant forced under pain of death to flee from the land that starves him. No! nearer, nearer, ladies! even at your chariot wheels, almost under them, crushed in the dust and groveling in their wretchedness, lie these, the victims of the juggernaut of

English aristocracy. Ha! and if you cannot *pity*, ladies, may you not perhaps be forced to *fear* them? These down-trodden millions can think; they can reason; they can rise from their wretchedness and cry aloud against the false sentimentality which casts its sympathy, its tears and its efforts upon the unknown and imagined evils of far-off lands, while misery shrieks unheeded at its feet. Aye, they may turn those shrieks to thunder. "Liberty and equality" may resound in your ears in other than the gentle tones wherein your lady-like voices speak them. God forbid that this should be! and yet beware that, in your sentimental follies, you do not give the first stroke of the tocsin for your own destruction! Shall liberty be for the negro and not for the white man? Shall bread be for the stranger and not for the brother? Hark! the cry is already on the wind! *Egalité! Fraternité! Droit de travail! La propriété c'est le vol!* What means all this? It means that trampled millions, when they reason, rush from crouching idiocy to rampant madness; it means that an uninformed people governs fiercely when it seizes the reins; it means that sparks may light a flame; it means that your beggars, proud ladies! may yet be your rulers. Beware how you chant the "*Marseillaise*!"

These are hard words, of which, even as we utter them, we repent—mischievous words, to feed the flame of discontent and rouse to wrathful resistance against irremediable ills. We believe that such works as Mayhew's Sketches of London, Alton Locke, and others similar, which are constantly emitted from the English press, are calculated (by pointing out evils for which they have no practicable remedy, thus exciting vague, aimless, and therefore necessarily mischievous effort) to do much harm, and we would not willingly play into the hands of such agitators. But what can we do? We are put upon the defensive, and must show that our system is not the one *monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lumen ademptum*—is not the great Giant Despair which you imagine it. We mean, therefore, no reproach upon the greatest nation that ever God's light shone upon. We mean but to show that even England—great, glorious England—proud, and justly proud of her people and her institutions, has her running sores too fearfully nauseous

to bear the probing. The proverb bids us mistrust the sick physician. He should not pretend to be the physician of others who himself teems with ulcers.

To conclude. We have been induced to the writing of this article, principally in the hope of convincing the ladies of Stafford-house, and others who may be disposed to join them, that they have mistaken their sisters of America. They have judged, we fear, by some noisy specimens of woman's-rights meetings, that the masses of womankind are ready to set the world on fire for a little notoriety. They have believed on the testimony of certain *ames damnées* in the abolition service, vouched for by the affidavits of all the *gobes-mouches*, who have written out their tales of horror for the benefit of the world, that the state of affairs was desperate with us of the slavery section, and have supposed that the ranting dames and demoiselles above referred to, might sweep us from the world of argument by some decisive "boo to a goose" process. Perhaps our arguments may be of sufficient weight to convince our aristocratic sisters of England, that there is with us of the Southern United States, a strong *corps de reserve* of sober, quiet women, who, satisfied to find our duties at home, (not for want of thought, but because thought teaches us that therein lies woman's highest task, and the fulfilment of her noblest mission,) can nevertheless start up with the true feeling of womanhood in defence of right and property, hearth and home. *Ora et labora*—strive and pray. Such is the lesson of our life, ladies, and it were hard to find a better. With us woman finds her noblest rule, her highest privilege; a privilege which, in the aggregate, her sex has never abused. However individual exceptions are to be found, woman (as a class) never sides with the oppressor. Our system, abhorrent as it seems to your ladyships, has the sanction of our hearts and heads, and in the conscientious exercise of it, we find enough to occupy both without the necessity of joining any of the world-improving and God-improving societies which at present are so much in vogue, and each one of which threatens the world with some new *fiat lux* for its regeneration.

Heaven bless you, ladies! Have not we, too, hands and feet? eyes and ears? heads and hearts? What sticks or stones

are we that we should contentedly settle down with the barren waste of wretchedness which you have been led to believe around us? If there is misery, can we not see it? If there is wretchedness, can we not hear it? Our poor, we have already told you, cannot be shoved into garrets and cellars. They are with us at bed and at board; and when there is woe with them, the wailing of it is in our ears. Believe ye that there is also no pity for it in our hearts? Shall we love—(grant us the common feelings of humanity)—shall we love the horse, the ox, the cat and the dog,—shall we cling with fond affection to the scenes of our childhood,—the house in which we have been reared,—the soil which our baby feet have trod,—aye, even an old chair or a crippled sofa, because of the holy memories which cling around it,—shall we love all these, and yet charity, feeling, conscience, suddenly become extinct when, just at the point that we touch upon, humanity, all should become more vivid? Surely this is not in human nature. Strong as are the instincts of race—intensely as we are taught to feel that black men are not white men—and shudderingly as we turn from the impious and insane idea that would level in one sweeping equality of degradation what God has so distinctly severed, yet can we most acutely feel the human tie between us. We can weep with them, nurse them, and comfort them; we can learn, in this school of the affections, that

"He prayeth best who loveth best  
All things, both great and small,  
For the dear God that loveth us,  
He made and loveth all."

By this exercise of charity, our whole being is the better attuned to love. The affections which pass from the child to the slave, descend still by gradation to the brute. The poor broken-down horse becomes dearer to us, and even the old ass, as we stroke his long ears, is from habit a friend. But, for heaven's pity! gentle ladies, be satisfied that we are kind to him, and do not insist that, because he cannot walk upright, we, for the sake of charity, equality and so forth, shall creep on all fours to keep him company. The white man may nurse and protect the negro—may pity the negro—may love the negro—but cannot consent to stoop to him. That position which is no degradation to the negro, because

therein, as a really inferior man, he but conforms to nature, becomes to the white man a disgrace and a reproach.

We have done. Brethren and sisters, in conformity with the *Christian* tone of your articles we conclude ours. "More in sorrow than in anger," brother reviewer, have, to use your own words, been our remonstrances; and sisters of Staf-

ford-house, of you we only beg, in Christian charity, that you will learn to know better both the white man and the negro of America. The chances are, that by so doing you will be the better able to strive with us towards that great aim which shall bring, as you (no doubt sincerely) pray, "Glory to God in the highest, on earth peace and good-will to-ward men."

#### ART. X.—COTTON AND THE COTTON TRADE, ONE THOUSAND EIGHT HUNDRED AND FIFTY-THREE.\*

SUPPLY, DEMAND, CONSUMPTION, PRICES—PRODUCT OF THE EAST, EUROPEAN CONSUMPTION—PROBABLE CROP, 1852-3—PROBABLE PRICES—SLAVE LABOR—HOW THE PRICE OF COTTON HAS BEEN SUSTAINED WITH LARGE CROPS, ETC.; BY PROF. M'CAY, OF GEORGIA. FROM HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE FOR JANUARY: WITH ADDITIONAL NOTES BY G. G. HENRY, OF MOBILE.

THE course of the cotton trade during the past year has been steady and uniform. The season opened in September and October at rates a trifle higher than were realized in December, but from January forwards the market slowly advanced, until it is now a little higher than it was a year ago. The price at Liverpool for fair cotton, on the 1st of September, 1851, was  $5\frac{1}{2}$ d., in October it was  $5\frac{1}{4}$ d., in January 5d., in March  $5\frac{1}{2}$ d., in May  $5\frac{1}{4}$ d., in July  $5\frac{3}{4}$ d., and 6d. in September, 1852. The increased estimates of the crop depressed the price early in the season, but the immense consumption in every part of the world—in the United States, in England, and on the continent—encouraged the sellers to demand higher rates; and these have been maintained, in spite of the promise of another large crop for the ensuing year. The rates now current are not high, but they are above the average. For the thirteen years from 1840 to 1852, the whole American exports, (see Table I., at the end of this article,) amounting to nearly ten thousand millions of pounds, have been sold at an average price of eight-and-a-half cents. The price of good middling at Charleston is now, October 29th,  $9\frac{1}{2}$  cents. Instead of declining below the usual rates, the market has advanced, after receiving the largest crop ever produced, and with the prospect of another fully as large. What has maintained these prices? Are the

causes temporary or permanent? Will they continue for the present year? or is their effect already past?

In attempting an answer to these questions, it may be remarked:—

1st. That the advance is not due to the fact that lower rates are not remunerative. From 1840 to 1844, when the average (see Table I.) was only eight cents, the stocks were constantly increasing. The production outran the consumption. This led to lower prices, which discouraged planting, and at the same time increased the demand of the manufacturers. From 1845 to 1849 the average price (see Table I.) was only  $7\frac{1}{2}$  cents. The surplus stocks then became small and prices advanced. Thus it appeared that an average of eight cents from year to year stimulated production, so that the supply exceeded the demand; while  $7\frac{1}{2}$  cents produced an opposite effect. The present rates, therefore, are more than sufficient to pay the planter a proper profit on his investment. And the general advance on land and negroes, throughout the Southern States, confirms the conclusion thus indicated by the rise and the decline of the stocks lying over from year to year. The present prices will not only pay the cost of production, but allow a handsome profit to the producer. But—

2d. The price has been kept up during the past year in part by a high rate of exchange. A rise of one per cent in exchange is nearly equal to one-eighth of a cent in the price of cotton. The

\* For previous years, see "Industrial Resources," Article, "Cotton."



advance in exchange has been about two per cent. over the rates which were current before the discovery of California gold. We were then both exporters and importers of the precious metals. When we were sending them abroad, the price of exchange was the real par, *plus* the freight, insurance, and other expenses of exportation. When we were receiving them, the price was the real par, less these expenses. The higher rates were 111 or 112; the lowest 104 or 105. The average was about 108 for sixty-day bills. For the past two or three years we have always been exporters of gold, and the range of exchange has been from 108 to 112 at New-York; seldom going down to 108 or rising to 112, the average being about 110. This rise in exchange on account of our owning the gold mines of California is a permanent cause. Exchange will be hereafter the real par, *plus* the cost of exporting specie, and not the real par sometimes increased and sometimes decreased by the cost of exportation. This is equivalent to an advance of one-fourth of a cent in every pound of cotton, and for the year past it produced to the South not less than three millions of dollars. This, though a true cause for an advance in the price of cotton, is not sufficient to account for the whole rise. Another cause may probably be—

3d. The increased supply of the precious metals, which by expanding the currency tends to raise the money price of all other articles of merchandise. The large additions of gold to the currency of the world must, by inevitable necessity produce an effect of this kind. No arithmetic can calculate its exact amount in a short period of time; but that it is producing and must produce hereafter a slow, continued rise in all kinds of property no one can possibly doubt. Its first effect is to raise the price of silver; but it is impossible, while the present laws regulating the comparative value of silver and gold at the mints of the world continue unchanged, to raise the premium on silver beyond a very small amount. The effect of a slight advance is to push aside the silver and to introduce gold in its stead. Thus in our own domestic currency, silver is passing out of general circulation, and the coffers of the banks are filling with gold in its place. In France the coinage of gold has of late increased very largely;

and so in other countries where both metals are a legal tender. This expansion of the metallic currency gives the banks an opportunity to increase their circulation, and thus the whole monetary medium, by which all the exchanges of commerce are made, becoming enlarged, the price of all other articles cannot fail to advance. It is impossible to say how large an influence this may have had in the recent high prices of cotton. It is not probably large, but that it is real no one can doubt.

4th. Another cause which has helped to sustain prices, and probably this is more potent than all the others together, is the successful despotism of Louis Napoleon in France, and of the crowned heads on the continent of Europe. The order that has reigned in Paris and throughout France, has given confidence to the merchant and the manufacturer, encouraged labor and industry, given security to property, and stimulated production and consumption in every department of business. Similar causes have been operating in the German and Italian States. The triumph of law and order over the revolutionists of 1848 was not complete until the present year. The iron heel of arbitrary power had crushed the external manifestations of resistance, but the murmurs of discontent were still audible, and the hopes of liberty were not yet extinguished. The present year has witnessed the end of all these things. Lombardy and Hungary kiss the rod of the oppressor. French soldiers preserve quiet at Rome. The patriots of Naples and Sicily are in prison or in exile. An Austrian army has quelled the disturbances in Baden, Hamburg, and Schleswig-Holstein. Revolution, anarchy, socialism, red-republicanism exist no more. Men have turned their attention to trade, to labor, to the pursuits of peace. Instead of political agitation, the people are employing themselves in new enterprises of industry, of commerce, and manufactures. The consumption of cotton in France has in consequence outrun any former year. Though stationary for many years past, the demand has suddenly awaked to new life. And so, also, in all the disturbed parts of Europe.

5th. The low price of grain in England, the successful working of free trade, and the prosperity in every department of manufactures, have stimu-

lated the home demand in Great Britain to an extraordinary extent. The exports of cotton fabrics have been encouraged by the peace and prosperity of every part of the world. The overthrow of Rosas has opened the La Plata and its tributaries to British commerce. The outbreak in Caffraria is unimportant. The war in Burmah being out of India proper has no influence on trade. The rebellion in China does not disturb the exchanges at the free ports. So that universal peace may be said to prevail.

6th. In the United States the onward march of the cotton manufacture has again been resumed. The tariff of 1846, and the high price of the raw material, had checked the demand for the past three years, but the progress of our country in population, wealth, and enterprise, has surmounted these obstacles, and our course has again been forward.

Of these several causes, now enumerated to explain the fair price of cotton for the past year in the face of the abundant supply, there is not one which is not likely to operate for the coming year. We may, therefore, in considering the supply and demand for 1853, anticipate full average prices. They cannot be high, for the supply will be too large to permit any check in consumption. They cannot fall even to the average, for the stocks are low, and any further decline would stimulate the demand even beyond the present extraordinary amount.

The supply from the United States will probably exceed the large crop of 1852. The increased number of hands, the large breadth of land planted in cotton under the stimulus of good prices, the favorable character of the season, the fine weather for gathering the crop after the 1st of October, and the lateness of the frost, will tell strongly in favor of a large production. We have indeed had two severe storms, and with one of them a flood, but their injury has not been serious. The rot also has prevailed to an uncommon extent. The boll-worm has been very general, and in some places severe. The caterpillar has done some harm, but beyond eating the leaves from the stalk, its ravages have been local and unimportant. These causes have not produced as much injury as was suffered last year.

This is especially true in the Atlantic States. The excessive drought inflicted

then more damage than all the opposing causes of the present season. The receipts at Charleston and Savannah will therefore exceed those of last year. They will also be increased by the extension of the Georgia rail-road farther to the West. Instead of 800,000 bales received last year, 900,000 may confidently be anticipated for 1853. In Florida, the storm of October 9th did such serious injury that we may expect a falling off in the receipts at Apalachicola and St. Mark's. More of this cotton will go to Savannah than usual; and the loss from the caterpillar and boll-worm has been considerable. But the increased planting will go far to balance these deficiencies, and only a slight decline may be looked for. From Alabama, the receipts will be larger than last year. There was then too little rain, now there has been too much. The river lands produced finely last season, now it is the sandy uplands that are white with abundance. Only a small increase, however, may be anticipated. From the various districts that send their cotton to New-Orleans, the reports are contradictory. The Red River lands are doing very well; the parishes of Louisiana have been injured by the worm; the bottoms of the Mississippi have been too wet; the frost has kept off to a very late period in Tennessee; the planting has been large; the season for gathering long, and nearly the same amount will probably be received as for the past year. From Texas, the reports have been very favorable, and an increase of 25 per cent. may be looked for with confidence. The whole crop of American cotton for 1853 may be estimated (see Table II.) at 3,100,000 bales.

The imports from the East Indies have fallen off largely the last year on account of the moderate prices. This has been the uniform effect of a declining market, and we may look with confidence for the same result hereafter. There is in India an immense production of cotton for domestic use. It has been stated to be as large as the crop in the United States, but no satisfactory statistics have ever been collected to show its actual amount. It is, however, very large, and a high price in Europe attracts a larger portion for foreign export. It may then be brought further from the interior, and pay a larger charge for freight. On the con-

trary, when the European rates decline, the inferior character of the cotton, the heavy expense for freight and insurance for the long voyage, leave but a small balance for the first cost of production, and the carriage from the interior to the seaport. The circle around the marts of export is thus narrowed, and the amount sent off decreases. Thus the high prices of 1850 and 1851 raised the English imports to 308,000 and 329,000 bales, against 182,000 in 1849. The moderate prices of the present year have caused the imports at Liverpool to fall off near 100,000 bales. (See Table III.) The low rates current in December and January last, diverted much of the East India cotton intended for export to China, and the European receipts have been small. No increase in these can be expected for 1853, since prices promise to be moderate, as they have been for the last season.

The imports into England from Egypt have increased largely for the past year. The largest amount ever before received was 82,000 bales in 1845. The average for the last three years has been 73,000. But for 1852 the receipts at Liverpool alone on the 8th of October had reached 142,000 bales. Less than usual has been carried to France, and so large an amount for England cannot be anticipated for the coming year, especially as the stocks in Liverpool of Egyptian cotton have advanced 50,000 bales. From Brazil and other places, the Liverpool receipts have increased slightly over last year; namely, from 90,000 to 108,000 bales; they are, however, less than for the two preceding years. The average from Egypt and Brazil for the last four years has been about 250,000 bales, (Table IV.,) and this amount may be looked for in 1853.

The total supply from all these places for 1853 may be estimated (Table V.,) at 3,550,000, or about the same as last year. This is 685,000 bales larger than for 1851, and 500,000 larger than for 1849. But, as the increased demand has taken off the whole of the larger production of 1852 at moderate prices, leaving the stocks now smaller than they have been for many years past, (Table VI.,) there is nothing in this large supply calculated to depress prices.

In considering the consumption, we notice everywhere a large increase, not only over last year, but over every for-

mer year. The amount consumed in Great Britain in 1851 was 1,663,000 bales, while the largest figures for any previous year were 1,590,000 bales. The deliveries to the trade this year at Liverpool, (see Table VII.,) where 95 per cent. of all the English sales are made, exceed those of last year more than 8,000 bags per week. As the factories are now well supplied, this excess will scarcely continue until the 31st of December. But the great regularity in the deliveries forbids any material decline. If the future purchases of the trade should not exceed those of the same period for last year, the consumption of Great Britain would reach 1,992,000 bales for 1852. Nor can we anticipate any less for 1853. The abundance of money, the favorable harvest, the great demand for labor, the high wages in all branches of manufactures, the advance in iron, the prosperity of the shipping interest, the large influx of Australian gold, the universal prevalence of peace in every part of the civilized world, the new machinery erected during the last year, the moderate rates which the raw material promises to bear, the low stocks of goods in the hands of the manufacturers, the large decline in the import of wool, and its consequent advance in price, and the general prosperity, both in the domestic and the export trade, authorize the expectation of a still larger consumption for 1853. There is not a single drawback to this anticipation, except the chapter of accidents; but it may be safest, as the increase for the last year has been so unprecedented, to look forward to a demand only as large as for the present year.

The consumption in France has increased as rapidly as in England. Our exports thither have been 120,000 bales larger than last year, and they have caused no accumulation of stocks either at Havre or at Marseilles. The deliveries at Havre alone have increased (see Table VIII.) more than 80,000 bales, and the amount of American cotton for the whole of France will probably exceed 400,000 bales, against 310,000 for 1851. As large a demand for 1853 may be confidently anticipated.

On the continent of Europe the consumption has been steadily increasing. Its progress is occasionally checked by high prices, but these are only tempo-

rary disturbances in its onward march. In Russia, the imports for the three years from 1841 to 1843 were 337,000 cwts.; from 1844 to 1846 they were 584,000; and from 1847 to 1849 they were 1,065,000. In the German Zollverein, the protective duties they have imposed have given ample encouragement to the home manufacture of cotton goods. The English and American exports of raw cotton to these and other continental states have averaged (see Table IX.) 417,000 bales in 1847 and 1848; 522,000 in 1849 and 1850; and 582,000 in 1851 and 1852. For the incoming year they will almost certainly reach 600,000 bales, which is a trifle less than the amount for the present season.

The consumption of the United States has made a most sudden and rapid advance during the past year. For the three preceding years we had gone backwards. The high price of the raw material, and the imports of cotton goods at low duties from abroad, had given a check to our increasing demand, such as we never before had experienced. Hitherto our progress had been uniformly onward. The rapid increase in our population and wealth forbids any retrograde movement in the regular operations of business. Just as our railroads, our shipping, our crop of cotton, or of wheat, or of corn, make steady and invariable progress from year to year, so must our cotton manufactures. There will be at

times a backward step in this movement, but it is temporary and brief. It is like the oscillation of a pendulum on a moving surface; the weight swings backwards and forwards, but the onward motion of the point of support makes it certain that the forward oscillations will more than compensate for the backward movements. The present prosperity of the country authorizes us to expect an advance even on the large consumption of the past season. The amount for 1852 has reached (see Table X.) 603,000 bales, and 625,000 may be anticipated for the coming year.

The whole demand for 1853 will then be estimated at 3,625,000 bales, (Table XI,) which is 75,000 more than the anticipated supply. (Table V.) Now, as the stocks on hand (Table VI.) are at present very low, lower than they have been for years past, especially if the time for which they would supply the demand be considered, it would seem that prices must keep above their usual average. This has been  $8\frac{1}{2}$  cents (Table I.) at the seaports for the last thirteen years, and if the influence of a high rate of exchange and the abundance of gold are to be regarded as real causes elevating the money value of cotton in our markets, it would seem probable that the present prices ( $9\frac{1}{2}$  cents at Charleston, October 29th, for good middling,) will be fully maintained, and that an advance rather than a decline may be expected.

TABLE I.—AMERICAN EXPORTS, VALUE AND PRICE.

From	Total exports in pounds.	Total value.	Price.
1840 to 1844.....	3,340,000,000.	\$267,200,000.	8 cents.
1845 to 1849.....	3,788,000,000.	284,400,000.	7.5 "
1850 to 1851.....	1,563,000,000.	184,300,000.	11.8 "
1852 (estimated).....	1,000,000,000.	90,000,000.	9 "
1840 to 1852.....	9,691,000,000.	825,900,000.	8.5 "

## II.—CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.

	Receipts, 1851.	Receipts, 1852.	Estimate, 1853.
Texas.....bales.....	46,000.	64,000.	80,000
New-Orleans....."	923,000.	1,373,000.	1,350,000
Mobile....."	452,000.	549,000.	560,000
Florida....."	181,000.	189,000.	175,000
Georgia....."	322,000.	326,000.	400,000
South Carolina....."	387,000.	477,000.	500,000
Other places....."	34,000.	37,000.	35,000
Total.....	2,355,000.	3,015,000.	3,100,000

## III.—IMPORTS FROM THE EAST INDIES.

Years.	Bales.	Remarks.
1830 to 1834 (average for five years).....	81,000.	Low prices.
1835 to 1839.....	144,000.	High prices.
1840 to 1844.....	232,000.	Chinese war.
1844 to 1849.....	177,000.	Peace and low prices.



# English Imports from Egypt, &c.—Supply, Stocks, &c. 285

Years.	Bales.	Remarks.
1849, October 5, Liverpool only.....	60,000	Low prices.
1851, " 10, ".....	171,000	High prices.
1852, " 8, ".....	75,000	Moderate prices.
1849, whole year, Great Britain.....	182,000	Low prices.
1851, " ".....	329,000	High prices.
1852, " Estimate.....	200,000	Moderate prices.
1853, " ".....	200,000	Moderate prices.

## IV.—ENGLISH IMPORTS FROM EGYPT, BRAZIL, ETC.

Years.	L'pool, about 1st Oct.	G. Britain, whole year.	Years.	L'pool, about 1st Oct.	G. Britain, whole year.
1849.....	bales..... 121,000	153,000	1850.....	bales..... 205,000	237,000
1847.....	" 75,000	136,000	1851.....	" 138,000	181,000
1848.....	" 94,000	137,000	1852.....	" 245,000	—
1849.....	" 178,000	245,000	1853 (estimated). ..	—	250,000

## V.—SUPPLY OF 1851, AND ESTIMATE FOR 1852 AND 1853.

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Crop of the United States.....	bales..... 2,355,000	3,015,000	3,100,000
English imports from East Indies.....	" 329,000	200,000	200,000
English imports from other places.....	" 181,000	300,000	250,000
Total from these sources.....	2,865,000	3,515,000	3,550,000

## VI.—STOCKS AT RECENT DATES, CORRESPONDING TO THE CLOSE OF OUR YEAR.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
United States, September 1.....	155,000	168,000	128,000	91,000
Liverpool, October 8.....	382,000	545,000	550,000	507,000
Havre, October 6.....	45,000	32,000	33,000	34,000
Total.....	582,000	745,000	711,000	632,000

## VII.—DELIVERIES TO THE TRADE AT LIVERPOOL.

	1849.	1851.	Weekly con- sumption.	1852.	Weekly con- sumption.
May 1.....	bales..... 532,000	427,000	25,100	630,000	37,100
June 4.....	" 688,000	619,000	28,100	870,000	39,600
July 2.....	" 835,000	744,000	28,600	1,001,000	38,500
August 1.....	" 993,000	887,000	29,600	1,156,000	38,500
September 3.....	" 1,141,000	1,058,000	30,200	1,340,000	38,300
October 1.....	" 1,220,000	1,167,000	29,900	1,475,000	37,900
" 8.....	" 1,287,000	1,191,000	29,800	1,520,000	38,900
Whole year.....	" 1,467,000	1,576,000	30,315	—	—
Do. Great Britain.....	" 1,590,000	1,663,000	32,000 (est.)	2,000,000 (est.)	39,000

## VIII.—DELIVERIES TO THE TRADE AT HAVRE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
	All kinds. U. States.	All kinds. U. States.	All kinds. U. States.
September 1.....	bales..... 232,000 220,000	224,000 211,000	300,000 290,000
October 1.....	" 250,000 238,000	246,000 234,000	327,000 316,000
Whole year.....	" 306,000 294,000	312,000 302,000	— —

## IX.—CONSUMPTION OUT OF ENGLAND, FRANCE, AND UNITED STATES.

Years.	American exports.	English exports.	Total.	Years.	American exports.	English exports.	Total.
1847.....	bales..... 109,000	215,000	324,000	1850.....	" 194,000	272,000	466,000
1848.....	" 255,000	192,000	447,000	1851.....	" 269,000	269,000	538,000
1849.....	" 322,000	254,000	577,000	1852.....	" 354,000	Oct. 8, 203,000	about 557,000

## X.—AMERICAN CONSUMPTION.

Years.	North of Richmond.	Average for three years.	Increase per cent.	South of Richmond.	Total.
1847.....	bales..... 428,000	413,000	—	80,000	508,000
1848.....	" 532,000	461,000	11+	90,000	622,000
1849.....	" 518,000	493,000	7+	100,000	618,000
1850.....	" 487,000	512,000	4+	100,000	587,000
1851.....	" 404,000	470,000	8—	100,000	504,000
1852.....	" 603,000	498,000	6+	100,000	703,000

## XI.—CONSUMPTION OF THE WORLD.

		Results for		Estimate for	
		1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Great Britain.....	bales...	1,514,000	1,663,000	2,000,000	2,000,000
United States.....	"	487,000	404,000	603,000	625,000
France (of United States).....	"	300,000	310,000	400,000	400,000
Exports from Great Britain and United States.....	"	502,000	538,000	625,000	660,000
Total.....		2,803,000	2,915,000	3,628,000	3,625,000

We are indebted to Geo. G. Henry Esq., an intelligent merchant of Mobile, for the following, which we insert with pleasure, by way of addendum to Mr. McCay's valuable paper.

CONSUMPTION.—Notwithstanding the apprehensions of Liverpool Circular writers, on the 1st January last, that the consumption of cotton for 1852 would not exceed 1851—the year has so nearly passed away that I can furnish you a comparative table below of the two years, viz :

Consumption.	1851.	1852.
United States.....	404	603
Great Britain.....	1,663	2,050
France and the Continent.....	956	1,350
Total.....	3,023	4,000

It is now ascertained that this consumption of 4,000,000 of bales of cotton has actually taken place, and the manufacturers have never been so constantly engaged in filling orders, without their stocks of manufactured goods being permitted to accumulate as is now, and has been the case for the past year. The consumption has been largely greater than the outside estimates of manufacturers. With a crop in the U. S. exceeding greatly any we have ever gathered, and with advancing prices in the spring, bringing forward every bale that was made to market—together amounting to 3,015,000—we see that this enormous supply has not only been absolutely consumed, but at least 100,000 bales of the stocks on hand at the first of the year have been also. The stocks of cotton in Europe on the 1st January, 1853, will be swelled at least 100,000 bls., by that quantity more than usual having been shipped and received there of the crop of 1852—an item which in this connection is of great importance, and must be remembered.

Now, what are the prospects of consumption for 1853? The question is one of magnitude, but with the data before us, is susceptible of demonstration.

The published reports of manufacturing statistics in Great Britain, for 1851, show that the increase of manufacturing power brought into operation there, was much greater than for any previous year. They already publish that the additional power put into operation in 1852, very much exceeds that of 1851; that factories of great elegance and enormous magnitude are now going up in various localities, indicating of course the great profitableness of investments in that department, and the tendency of a farther great increase in 1853 over 1852.

Gratulating themselves, they state, that the improvements recently introduced into the hosiery manufacturer's machinery, does work which, costing two years ago 1s. 6d. (say 33c.), is now done for 2d. or 3½c. Such is the condition and prospect in Great Britain. What is its condition on the continent? In the figures above, you see, for 1851 it was 956,000 bales. For this year it is estimated by English writers that it will be 1,350,000 bales, which is about 42 per cent. increase. This increase is enormous, but as I have always remarked in my circulars, the increase there is destined to be in a very great and constant ratio. In the enormous population of Germany, Italy, France, &c., the consumption is merely in its bud—I remarked in my circular of Nov. 18, 1851, "the consumption of the present year will be largely over that of any other in Great Britain, France, and on the continent, and the rapidity of its increase in Russia, Germany and the south of Europe, is highly encouraging. I may properly observe, then, that important as is the consumption of cotton in France and Germany, their peasantry have been, and are still relying on flax and hemp for a large proportion of their coarse clothes. Did the 35,000,000 of France, and the 70,000,000 of Germany consume cotton in the ratio that the population of the United States, Great Britain and In-

dia does, the crop of the United States, if doubled, would not supply their demand." Well, the consumption in France, Germany and the rest of Europe, will increase in a ratio fully corresponding with our ability to supply them, and this *must continue*, from the fact that the cotton goods can be afforded cheaper than flax or hemp goods; the land which produces the hemp will, planted in potatoes or wheat, yield a more profitable crop, and the latter are raised with much less labor and expense.

We now pass to that of the U. States. The consumption of the past as compared with the former years is extraordinary, being, as you perceive, about 50 per cent. increase—we may properly inquire into the cause of this difference, and consider if it is likely to continue to increase. I gave, in my circular before alluded to, reasons for the falling off of so much, apparently from the preceding year, which was, that the constant and heavy exports of specie then going on had alarmed the Northern banks, as they held comparatively no specie, causing them to withhold their accustomed and essential accommodations. When the imports of California gold became uniform and established, and they were satisfied that the imports of gold would be greater than the exports, they relaxed and extended not only their usual but increased facilities to the manufacturing as well as other interests; hence the increased manufacture. But shall it be continued? When we regard the important emigration which has been annually flowing into the country, as well as our own naturally and rapidly increasing population,—that the entire country, especially west and south, are all in the highest degree prosperous, we must conclude that our own home trade must every year be augmented, with the increase of the country. In conclusion of this branch, it is plain to us of the South, that our consumption of cotton goods is very rapidly enlarging, and our manufacturers are fully engaged and steadily increasing their power and spindles. I anticipate further regular advance in this branch of the nation's enterprise, and that the consumption of 1853 will be progressive. We now turn

THE CROP OR SUPPLY.—Small as were the stocks remaining in our ports, 1st September, 1851, we find this year they

are diminished 37,000 bales; and we further find that the stocks in the interior towns, on the 1st Sept., were next to nothing, and that, instead of a considerable quantity being held back in the gin houses and on the plantations, as usual, the prices which cotton advanced to in the spring brought every bale forward into last year's receipts, and which are estimated, in the aggregate, to have been from 300,000 to 250,000 bales. While this quantity went to swell the receipts of last year, it will be borne in mind that the supply of cotton for this year loses it, and we must deduct, from the otherwise probable receipts of this year, that quantity.

What of our crop? After the extraordinary one of last year, and its excess over any one's calculations, I feel some reluctance in touching on it. I will simply say it is confessedly good—over an average crop. The receipts of the last five years were, for 1851-2, 3,015,000; 1850-1, 2,355,000; 1849-50, 2,097,000; 1848-9, 2,729,000; 1847-8, 2,348,000=12,544,000; or, an average of 2,509,000 bales per annum. The average of the preceding five years was 2,137,000 bales, and the increase per cent. per annum of the latter over the former period is 34 per cent.—at which rate per cent. on the average would give a crop this year of 2,600,000 bales. I am, however, of opinion, the crop may be admitted to be as good in the aggregate this, as it was last year, but the probable amount of old and extra cotton sent forward, which would have fallen to this or some future year's receipts, must be deducted thus:

Receipts and crop of last year.....	3,015,000
Less extra cotton forwarded.....	265,000
Crop of 1852.....	2,750,000

With "the lights before me," I am doubtful if the crop of this year exceed that figure.

Were we governed alone by the receipts to this time at our ports, compared with last year's to the same time, this view would be palpably and at once contradicted, I confess; but what are the circumstances attending the receipts of the two years? They are these: that last year the waters tributary to New-Orleans, save the Mississippi itself, were unnavigable until in February; so unusually late did they continue down, that many of the most opulent firms

there suspended payment. Our rivers also were late getting up. This year the waters tributary to New-Orleans have been up, from the time cotton was ready to be shipped; and as prices were favorable, every boat has been put into requisition to expedite the cotton to market, and the article has been sold, by the by, as it arrived. Our principal river, and from which about one half of our receipts are derived, has also been up; and with freight at \$1 a bale, and full prices generally prevailing for cotton, it has come forward with unusual rapidity, and it has also been sold. But with reference to the crop on this river, the Alabama, what do we now see? As I said in my opening, the boats from that river are coming in with loads, like those of the months of May and June—and they have reduced the freights to stimulate the shipments.

But leaving these comparisons, I will briefly submit my estimates for the probable receipts at each point for this year. No old cotton to come in from the interior of Georgia and South Carolina, and their crops not quite so good as last year. I put the receipts of the

Atlantic states.....	at .....	750,000
Florida.....	" .....	170,000
Mobile.....	" .....	450,000
New-Orleans.....	" .....	1,250,000
Texas (a full crop).....	" .....	100,000
Total.....		2,750,000

The frost was late or I would not put it so high. And considering the occurrence of very wet and bad weather for gathering of late, especially in Mississippi and Louisiana, this appears to me a very full, and fair estimate. Worms, rot and storms have injured the crop this year, else I admit it would have been larger. Contending with these enemies it is a heavy one if it reaches 2,750,000, and as I have sometimes over-estimated, I must insert here, I would not be surprised if the crop falls below this.

The supply from other countries, imported into Europe, we may put down the same as last year, and we may thus view the result.

Amount of stocks in the United States 1st September, 1851.....	91,000
Amount of American crop for 1851 and 1852 was.....	3,015,000
Less cotton forwarded last year, usually held for subsequent periods.....	265,000
	2,750,000

Less this amount received in Europe previous to 1st Jan., 1853, more than usual of crops.....

100,000  
2,650,000

Cotton imported into Europe from other countries.....  
Stocks in Europe 1st Jan., 1853.....

700,000  
500,000

Supply for 1853.....

3,941,000

Above I have given the consumption of 1852, which was, bales, 4,000,000; showing the supply of 1853, inclusive of the entire stocks in Europe and America, will be less than the consumption actually is and has been of 1852,—59,000.

This view may be questioned, as the results are arrived at by estimates of crops and estimates of consumption, but I will defend them under the proper head of—

PRICES.—Our views of prices are dependent on the extent of consumption and the crops or supply of cotton. I have above shown what the probable supply for 1853 would be, and with the entire stocks of cotton on hand in Europe and America, it will be less than the consumption of 1852 has been. Were the crops, I admit, fully ascertained to-day, to not exceed my figures, the price of middling cotton would be 12½ cents, with all the concurring favorable causes to place them at that. I think 2,750,000 bales will be the extent,—but let us admit for a moment that, independent of the lessened quantity to come to market this year, in consequence of the country being entirely stripped last year of cotton, the receipts will go to 3,000,000 bales. Well, so much the better for us; but will 3,000,000 bales weaken our position materially as to prices? The consumption we put down for Europe is the late published estimate of English papers, confirmed by circular statistics to the last dates—that of the United States has been authoritatively footed up. It may be contended, the manufacturers hold more stock than they are accustomed to. No one will contend they hold as much in proportion to the consumption as they held last year. Our prices current show that, on the 27th November, 100,000 bales were cleared for Europe since 1st September, more than had been to the same time last year, and this will be received in Europe and be added in the stock, which, with this, will not exceed the quantity I put down, viz: 500,000 bales. I say if the crop should be 250,000 bales more than



my estimate is, then there would be the extravagant stock in Europe and America of 191,000 bales on 1st Jan. 1854. To quibble about this matter will be ridiculous, as in any intelligent view it is presented, it is very *transparent* that the tendency to increased consumption for 1853, *must be checked by an insufficient supply*. What are our grounds supporting the conclusion, that the consumption of 1853 would be greater than 1852, were it not checked by this insufficiency of the raw material?

First, the peace of the world and the total absence of any exciting political questions any where. As, for example, the late decision by Parliament to maintain in Great Britain unrestricted trade, lops off all suspense there. Again, the establishment of the empire of France by unsurpassed unanimity, confirms not only the progress of prosperity and quiet in France, but secures it in all Europe. Further, the nomination by the Southern Rights Party of this country of Gen. Pierce for the office of President, and his unexampled majorities in the South, which, contrary to the apprehensions of some of his friends South, were quite as fully maintained in the North, having been elected with the dissenting voices of only four states, give confidence and encouragement to the people of this country, that the fanatics of the North are stripped of their poison, and that the admonition of Mr. Winthrop in Congress, that the South should prepare for emancipation, was the struggling and flickering twilight of abolition. The establishment and confirmation of repose among the people of the South produced by this election, I regard of momentous influence at the present time on the question of prices for our staple.

The fine harvests of Great Britain and the continent—the superabundance of money—the universally prosperous and progressive spirit of trade—concur to support prices. But we have only one more point we need to add. Besides the quantities of gold received in this country and Europe from California and Australia, produced there previous to 1st August last, it is estimated, by competent authorities, that the gold of California will reach, in the 12 months, from 1st August, \$100,000,000; of Australia, for the same time, \$200,000,000—making, for the 12 months, from the 1st of August last, \$300,000,000.

Can there be a question for a moment of what will be the effect of this accession of the precious metals upon the price of a material of this nature? A material which cannot be supplied at any price, in a ratio commensurate with its consumption—and in the face of those multiplied accessions of gold from year to year, I consider, in the present position of all the great interests which are connected with cotton, that its consumption would not be checked at all, if prices for this crop were to go to 12½ cents, and that prices will advance this year and continue good, I have no doubt.

Permit me to say, in explanation of my allusion to abolitionism, what I consider to be the position now of the slavery question. Seeing the vigilant and constant inquiry the British Government is making as to the effects of emancipation in the South American and West India Colonies, and of slavery as it exists, and observing the pulsations of the English people respecting it, I am with other reasons conducted to this conclusion. Its enunciation may surprise many—nay, all; but I venture the assertion that it will be so:

That is, that the English Government will openly and practically repudiate the false position they took and now occupy in reference to it. A glance at the influence which effected emancipation in the English West Indies, and which has been outlived by time and experience, will detain us for a moment. The East India Company, anticipating the value of the productions of the West Indies and the Isthmus, for the preservation of their very distant possessions in the East, resolved on emancipation in the English West Indies. They promulgated arguments, that emancipation, while it would cause an additional demand for the labor of the white, would at the same time increase the productions of the country by the application of this intelligent labor, and that the trade of the mother country would be benefited, as the whites would consume more than the blacks; that the productions, being augmented in quantity, would be furnished to the mother country much lower than as it was; and that the treatment of slaves was horrible; and for miscellaneous and promiscuous reasons, emancipation ought to take place. The people of England have already experienced that all these arguments were

false. And the pressure of the cotton question will cause them ere long to declare the trade in negroes to be as free and unrestricted as the trade now is in anything else. Will they consent, in this enlightened age, that the very Eden of America shall shed its uncultivated fruits in desert wilds? Assuredly, assuredly, not! They will themselves say, that it will be as wise, as humane, to reclaim from the wilds of Africa its

savage race, and place them in a position to benefit themselves and the great family of man. There is an apathy on the subject of slavery elsewhere than amongst a portion of the English and a portion of the people of the North. However, with the opposition to it, in England removed, the trade will be reopened—and her citizens will largely and fully participate in it, in all its ramifications.

## ART. XI.—COMMERCIAL PROGRESS.

COMMERCE OF NEW-YORK—IMMIGRATION INTO NEW-YORK, 1849-1852—BRITISH COMMERCE—BRITISH AND AMERICAN TRADE COMPARED—LOSSES ON THE LAKES, LAKE TRADE, ETC.

COMMERCE OF NEW-YORK.—The New-York papers of January the first, contain an immense mass of statistical information in regard to the commerce and trade of that city, from which we make the subjoined abstract, and will hereafter give the full statistics.

The total imports for 1852 amounted to \$129,849,619, showing a decline of \$1,511,959 on the imports of the previous year. The amount of specie imported was \$2,408,225, against \$2,049,543 in 1851, and \$16,127,939 in 1850. The greatest excess of importations is on dry goods—it being over three millions of dollars. The total import of dry goods for the year, was \$61,654,144, against 62,846,731 for 1851. The import of woollen goods for 1852 was over sixteen millions of dollars; of cotton goods over eleven millions; of silk goods twenty-two millions; of flax goods seven millions.

The *Journal of Commerce*, from which we glean the above facts, has also the following table showing the values of some of the leading items of imports for the last year:

Cigars .....	\$1,917,118
Coffee .....	5,249,640
Hardware and cutlery .....	2,711,236
Hides .....	3,005,862
Lead .....	1,248,960
Liquors .....	1,923,959
Molasses .....	953,580
Wines .....	1,643,336
R. R. Iron .....	3,580,838
Steel .....	1,083,554
Sugar .....	8,926,690
Tea .....	6,398,104
Tobacco .....	703,387
Tin .....	3,045,320
Watches .....	2,183,047

The revenue from cash duties received at that port, show that a larger pro-

portion of the dutiable imports have been made up of articles of luxury, which pay a high rate of duty.

The amount of cash duties received at New-York the past year, \$31,332,737; in 1851, \$31,081,263; in 1850, \$28,047,439.

The total exports for the year were \$71,523,609, of which \$25,096,255 were in specie! The total exports of 1851 amounted to \$87,653,849, of which \$43,743,209 were in specie!! From this it will be seen that the excess of specie exported last year was \$18,640,954, and that the shipments of both years were greatly to the advantage of foreign manufacturers.

The *Journal of Commerce*, commenting on these facts, says:

It will be seen that the falling off is altogether in specie, and that exclusive of this item, the exports have increased \$2,517,714, although they are less than the very large amount reached in 1850. We annex a summary of the exports of specie and merchandise for three years:—

	Specie.	Merchandise.	Total.
1852 .....	\$25,096,255	\$46,427,354	\$71,523,609
1851 .....	43,743,209	43,910,640	87,653,849
1850 .....	9,982,948	50,136,300	60,119,248

The specie exported is as much domestic produce, as wheat or corn, and if more of it had been shipped, our home market would be in a more healthy condition. In this connection, we present a comparison of the quantity of some of the leading articles of produce shipped from this port for the last two years, the total value of which is included above under the head of merchandise. The

shipments of flour have increased about 100,000 bbls., while the exports of wheat have been doubled. The shipments of corn have continued to decline for the last three years. Many other items of interest will be found in the comparison.

There were exported from New-York in 1852, 336,679 bales of cotton against 289,645 bales the previous year; and 26,113 tierces rice against 29,100. The exports of domestic cotton goods amounted to 54,692 packages against 24,006 in 1849, showing a heavy increase. The amount of gold dust entered from California for the year is \$37,363,569, which is much less than was reported at the mint.

The total number of steamships which arrived during the year was 208. Ships 956, barks 860, brigs 1253, galliots 2, schooners 544, yachts 1. Total 3,822. The number of schooners reported by Capt. Lunt of the Sandy Hook light-ship, as having passed in sight of that ship, inward bound, is 1132.

IMMIGRATION FOR THE YEAR 1852.—The total number of arrivals at the port of New-York from foreign countries during the year 1852, adds up 363,556. Of these 39,052 are ascertained to have been American citizens, returning home from travel abroad. We annex a table

giving a comparative view of the immigration at this port during the four years past:

Nations.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
Ireland	112,587	116,542	103,256	117,537
Germany	55,705	45,407	60,883	116,186
England	28,321	28,125	28,551	31,275
Scotland	8,840	6,771	7,302	7,640
Wales	1,782	1,520	2,189	2,531
France	2,683	3,398	6,064	8,718
Spain	214	257	278	450
Switzerland	1,405	2,361	4,499	6,455
Holland	2,447	1,174	1,798	1,393
Norway	3,300	3,150	2,112	1,389
Sweden	1,007	1,110	872	2,034
Denmark	159	90	229	156
Italy	602	475	618	358
Portugal	287	55	26	29
Belgium	118	230	475	82
West Indies	419	504	575	265
Nova Scotia	151	161	81	73
Sardinia	172	165	98	69
South America	38	103	121	120
Canada	59	61	50	48
China	9	11	9	14
Sicily	21	58	11	42
Mexico	22	41	42	92
Russia	38	18	23	38
East Indies	34	92	10	13
Turkey	6	5	4	4
Greece	6	3	1	6
Poland	133	169	142	186
Arabia	8	—	—	—

Total.....220,608. 212,896. 239,601. 305,504

In a late number of the Economist, edited by that able commercial writer, Thomas P. Kettell, of New-York, we find an admirable paper upon the growth of British trade. We extract the following table:—

## DECLARED VALUE OF BRITISH PRODUCE EXPORTED TO DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE WORLD.

Countries.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.
Russia.....	£1,705,954	2,672,314	1,191,565	1,740,433	1,885,933	1,229,704
Sweden.....	523,313	32,410	57,127	113,308	199,313	169,319
Norway.....	56,154	66,494	58,580	79,469	134,794	257,514
Denmark.....	183,912	164,277	92,294	91,302	194,304	445,500
Prussia.....	1,229,756	492,499	192,812	148,722	376,151	503,531
Germany.....	6,439,594	6,110,356	3,642,952	4,456,729	6,292,700	7,191,666
Holland.....	2,514,190	1,118,108	2,082,536	2,509,622	2,573,362	3,542,673
Belgium.....	1,461,036	632,964	839,270	1,762,441	1,099,490	984,501
France.....	579,811	390,744	602,688	1,591,381	3,193,939	2,028,463
Total, North of Europe	£14,693,580	11,680,906	7,320,654	11,570,342	16,330,416	16,433,174
Portugal.....	3,249,356	1,668,130	1,056,589	1,191,676	1,012,764	1,150,232
Spain.....	3,560,379	626,104	631,130	476,446	377,168	1,065,390
Italy.....	2,328,792	2,441,958	2,490,376	2,886,406	2,494,197	3,321,025
Turkey.....	153,908	551,792	888,634	1,762,441	1,489,826	2,441,951
Total, South of Europe	£9,292,630	5,288,074	5,066,749	6,317,029	5,373,935	8,578,598
Gibraltar.....	1,659,776	1,191,096	367,285	736,411	937,719	481,266
Malta and Ionian.....	806,978	269,698	185,409	247,338	372,904	524,539
Jersey.....	326,627	266,603	324,634	318,609	364,350	613,794
West Coast of Africa.....	113,178	145,117	234,708	467,186	459,685	658,934
New South Wales.....	6,068	117,123	398,471	835,637	958,953	2,868,151
British North America.....	4,399,753	1,559,104	2,069,387	2,732,291	2,333,525	3,813,707
Cape of Good Hope.....	259,034	248,182	296,676	482,315	369,076	752,393
West Indies.....	7,089,090	4,107,161	2,581,949	3,786,433	3,591,425	2,433,665
China.....	—	—	3,387,412	2,326,368	909,391	2,161,269
Mauritius.....	2,394,349	3,693,168	118,475	260,855	244,923	232,955
East India Comp.....	—	—	—	4,285,829	5,169,208	7,806,590
Total to Colonies.....	£15,025,456	11,717,252	10,004,399	15,469,312	14,770,097	23,346,698
North of Europe.....	14,693,580	11,680,906	7,320,654	11,570,342	16,330,416	16,433,174
South of Europe.....	9,292,630	5,288,074	5,066,749	6,317,029	5,373,935	8,578,598
All others.....	6,482,553	7,738,430	14,772,570	19,937,287	10,404,555	27,001,322
Grand Total.....	£45,494,219	36,424,632	37,164,373	53,293,979	47,381,023	74,440,712

## COMPARATIVE GROWTH OF BRITISH AND AMERICAN TRADE.

EXPORTS OF GREAT BRITAIN TO CHIEF COUNTRIES, AND OF THE UNITED STATES TO THE SAME.

To what Countries.	1849.		1861.	
	From Great Britain.	From U. States.	From Great Britain.	From U. States.
Russia, Northern Ports .....	£1,885,053	\$316,096	£1,157,543	\$1,405,704
Ports within the Black Sea .....	—	—	132,161	—
Sweden .....	199,313	228,945	189,319	760,800
Norway .....	135,704	—	257,814	—
Denmark, including Iceland .....	194,304	70,766	445,500	92,257
Prussia .....	376,631	149,141	503,531	80,460
Mecklenburg Schwerin .....	—	—	33,153	—
Hanover .....	—	—	237,288	—
Oldenburg and Kniphausen .....	6,202,700	3,814,904	10,909	—
Hanseatic Towns .....	—	—	6,920,078	5,405,956
Heligoland .....	—	—	238	—
Holland .....	3,573,362	3,336,336	3,542,673	1,911,115
Belgium .....	1,099,490	1,434,035	984,501	2,709,333
Channel Islands .....	364,350	—	613,724	—
France .....	3,193,930	17,563,580	2,028,463	25,660,925
Portugal proper .....	947,855	72,723	1,048,356	167,342
Azores .....	36,862	49,183	59,935	20,240
Madeira .....	25,047	43,054	41,941	94,589
Spain, Cont'l and Belearic Isles .....	322,614	355,120	1,015,493	5,416,044
Canary Islands .....	54,554	12,723	49,827	12,540
Gibraltar .....	937,719	466,937	481,266	177,904
Italy, with adjacent coast of the Adriatic Islands, viz:	—	—	—	—
Sardinian Territories .....	—	40,208	706,108	310,838
Duchy of Tuscany .....	—	1,541,847	869,131	1,736,534
Papal Territories .....	2,404,107	515,577	266,633	—
Naples and Sicily .....	—	237,861	1,266,211	41,743
Austrian Territories .....	—	748,139	812,942	2,265,373
Malta and Gozo .....	280,304	11,644	301,443	64,061
Ionian Islands .....	83,600	—	223,096	—
Kingdom of Greece .....	17,538	—	220,592	—
Turkish Dominions, (exclusive of Wallachia, Moldavia, Syria and Egypt) .....	1,472,268	125,521	1,937,011	162,204
Wallachia and Moldavia .....	—	—	284,348	—
Syria and Palestine .....	375,551	—	359,871	—
Egypt, Ports on the Mediterranean .....	221,003	—	968,729	—
Tunis .....	—	—	7,549	—
Algeria .....	44,952	—	6,917	—
Morocco .....	—	—	40,783	—
Western coast of Africa .....	459,685	472,841	658,034	1,245,361
British Possessions in South Africa .....	369,706	—	752,303	161,591
Eastern coast of Africa .....	—	—	224	—
African Ports on the Red Sea .....	262	—	224	—
Cape Verd Islands .....	1,480	103,557	788	57,476
Ascension and St. Helena .....	18,675	—	30,555	—
Mauritius .....	244,922	—	232,035	16,882
Aden .....	5,888	—	17,184	—
Continental India, with contiguous Islands, viz:	—	—	—	—
British Territories .....	5,169,208	399,979	7,806,596	512,906
French Possessions .....	—	—	443	—
Islands of the Indian Seas, viz:	—	—	—	—
Samatra .....	306,132	85,578	759,362	204,898
Java .....	47,019	235,732	202,565	125,544
Philippine Islands .....	—	—	215	—
Celebes .....	969,381	737,509	2,161,268	2,155,945
China .....	916,164	52,651	2,807,356	—
British Settlements in Australia .....	42,788	128,856	60,795	601,146
South Sea Islands .....	2,333,525	5,950,143	3,813,707	9,060,387
British North America .....	—	—	—	—
British West India Islands and British Guiana .....	2,501,425	3,219,337	2,901,022	4,484,114
Honduras (British Settlements) .....	—	127,339	232,633	213,806
Foreign West India Islands, viz:	—	—	—	—
Cuba .....	—	4,197,468	1,164,177	5,239,276
Porto Rico .....	—	610,813	63,353	961,410
Guadeloupe .....	—	1,173,905	135	—
Martinique .....	—	—	1,642	—
Curacao .....	711,938	—	43,096	979,623
St. Croix .....	—	101,055	5,086	—
St. Thomas .....	—	—	572,721	—
Dutch Guiana .....	—	—	2,130	452,280
Hayti .....	141,896	844,432	229,146	1,679,372
United States of America .....	3,535,881	—	14,362,977	—
Mexico .....	374,969	969,371	577,901	577,901



To what Countries.	1842		1851	
	From Great Britain.	From U. States.	From Great Britain.	From U. States.
Central America.....	.....	46,649.....	310,814.....	223,302.....
New Grenada.....	.....	51,363.....	310,880.....	2,507,701.....
Venezuela.....	231,711.....	499,780.....	349,701.....	854,779.....
Ecuador.....	.....	.....	54,099.....	.....
Brazil.....	1,730,805.....	2,225,571.....	3,518,684.....	3,129,956.....
Oriental Republic of Uruguay.....	.....	201,444.....	218,078.....	32,711.....
Buenos Ayres.....	969,791.....	447,356.....	459,320.....	659,832.....
Chill.....	950,466.....	1,270,941.....	1,181,537.....	1,608,877.....
Peru.....	684,313.....	.....	1,208,253.....	249,760.....
Falkland Islands.....	284.....	.....	2,841.....	.....
Russian Settlements on the North-West Coast of America.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Greenland and Davis's Straits.....	.....	.....	282.....	.....
Great Britain.....	.....	38,234,511.....	.....	109,531,612.....
Elsewhere.....	.....	.....	.....	106,782.....
Total declared value.....	£47,381,023.....	\$92,969,996.....	£74,448,722.....	\$196,689,718.....

LOSSES ON THE LAKES AND ON WEST- two columns of details of marine losses  
ERN RIVERS—LAKE TRADE, ETC.—*Losses* on the Lakes during the year 1852, of  
on the Lakes in 1852.—The Buffalo *Morn-* which the following is a recapitula-  
ing Express, of a recent date, contains tion:—

Whole amount of loss by collisions.....	\$261,950
“ “ by other casualties.....	730,709
The amount of loss by steam vessels has been.....	633,620
“ “ by sail “ has been.....	359,039
“ “ by American “ has been.....	907,487
“ “ by British “ has been.....	85,172
Amount of loss on Lake Ontario by steam.....	\$49,350
“ “ “ by sail.....	29,589
“ “ Lake Erie by steam.....	543,470
“ “ “ by sail.....	197,880
“ “ Lake Huron by steam.....	16,000
“ “ “ by sail.....	53,600
“ “ Lake Michigan by steam.....	800
“ “ “ by sail.....	78,020
“ “ Lake Superior by steam.....	24,000
“ “ “ by sail.....	24,000

Of the two hundred and fifty-nine disasters here detailed, seven occurred in the month of April, nineteen in May, twenty-four in June, fifteen in July, sixteen in August, twenty-one in September, twenty-seven in October, eighty-five in November, (55 in one gale of the 11th and 12th,) and fifteen in December. Six steamers, seven propellers, and thirty-five sail-vessels, have gone out of existence entirely. In many instances the amount of losses as above stated have been matters of estimate, as many must necessarily be; but much pains and care have been taken to procure, in each case, the opinion of competent men who were most familiar with the circumstances. Regarding the loss of life by the steamer *Atlantic*, there are various opinions—her agents and proprietors contending it not to exceed one hundred and fifty, while many who were somewhat familiar with the circumstances, set it as high as three hundred, and some even higher.

The loss of property is large, being some \$260,000 greater than any previous

year. The loss of life is also large. Capt. R. puts it at 296, which is probably considerably under the actual number. Many persons, who were competent to judge, put the number lost on the *Atlantic* as high as 300.

The statement will be found of great interest to all those engaged in commercial transactions, and will be found more accurate than any previous statement.

The foreign commerce of our Lake ports, says the *North American*, is of much more importance than is generally supposed. Of course it is the result of a growing intercourse with the Canadian provinces; but were the navigation of the St. Lawrence opened to our commerce, it is an ascertained fact that the Lake ports are ready and eager to carry on a direct commerce with Europe. In illustration of the importance already acquired by the foreign trade of these ports, the *Sandusky Register* compiles from the United States Treasury documents the following statement of the amount of duties received for the years ending July 1st:

	1850-51.	1851-52.				
Buffalo, N.Y.	\$67,000	\$91,000	Name, and how lost.	Amount insured and lost.	Lives lost.	Where lost.
Oswego, N.Y.	91,000	57,000	Caddo.....snag..	—	—	N.-Orleans
Sandusky, Ohio	30,000	82,000	Trustee.....collapsed.	total.	—	Arkansas R.
Cleveland, Ohio	55,000	85,000	Jefferson.....collapsed.	—	—	Little Rock
Plattsburg, Ohio	49,000	61,000	Mary Kingston.....explo.	—	10.	Poverty Pt
Detroit, Michigan	28,300	34,000	Violet.....snag..	—	—	Granada
Niagara, N.Y.	17,000	23,000	Elite.....snag..	—	—	Smithfield
Ogdensburg, N.Y.	20,000	21,000	Logan.....snag..	8,000	—	Green R.
Cape Vincent, N.Y.	6,300	19,000	Glaucus.....burned.	5,000	5.	Mississippi
Sackett's Harbor, N.Y.	6,000	19,000	Ionian.....snag..	17,000	—	Grand Rap.
Chicago, Ill.	5,000	11,000	Pocahontas.....collap.	—	—	Arkansas R.
			Grampus.....snag..	—	—	Hatchie R.
Total	\$376,000	\$542,000	Alton.....snag..	total.	—	Missouri R.
			Glencoe.....explo.	total.	50.	St. Louis
			Redstone.....explo.	total.	40.	Ohio
			Saluda.....explo.	total.	100.	Missouri
			Robt. Rogers.....collis'n.	—	—	Cumbr'land
			Col. King.....explo.	—	—	Tennessee R.
			Choctaw.....snag..	—	10.	Shreveport
			Prairie State.....explo.	—	—	Pekin, Ill.
			Pontiac, No. 2.....snag..	—	20.	Missouri R.
			Chickasaw.....collis'n.	—	—	French I.
			Beacon.....snag..	—	—	Ponchartr'n
			Mammoth Cave.....coll'n.	—	—	Mississippi
			Umpire.....snag..	—	—	Arkansas R.
			Peyton, No. 2.....captiz'd.	total.	—	Cincinnati
			Hail Columbia.....coll'n.	total.	—	Beaver
			Banner.....snag..	5,000	—	Memphis
			Lucy Robinson.....snag..	15,000	50.	Mississippi
			St. James.....explo.	—	—	Mississippi
			Timour, No. 2.....snag..	—	—	Missouri R.
			Sea Gull.....snag..	—	—	Ohio
			Lamartine.....snag..	—	40.	Missouri R.
			Dr. Franklin.....explo.	total.	—	Mississippi
			Pilot No. 2.....snag..	—	—	Ohio R.
			Indian Queen.....snag..	total.	4.	Mississippi
			May Queen.....snag..	total.	—	Arkansas R.
			Swan.....aground.	total.	—	Dog River
			Pincktona.....wrecked.	16,000	—	Montgomery
			Pawnee.....snag..	total.	—	Cow Island
			Danube.....snag..	—	—	Fever River
			Anna.....snag..	total.	—	Atchafalaya
			D. A. Given.....snag..	total.	—	Mississippi
			Naniop.....snag..	total.	—	Red River
			Shelby.....snag..	8,000	—	Selma
			Midas.....raised.	—	—	Island 16
			H. D. Bacon.....raised.	—	—	Mississippi
			Tuscumbia.....raised.	—	—	Mississippi
			Financier.....explo.	—	—	Illinois R.
			Connecticut.....snag..	—	—	Cow Island
			Anne Linnington.....snag..	3,000	—	Atlas Island
			Dan Canvass.....snag..	—	15.	Ohio River
			Buckeye Belle.....explo.	total.	—	Marietta
			Royal Arch.....snag..	raised.	—	Buffington I.
			Tuscarora.....snag..	total.	—	Buffington I.
			Envoy.....collis'n.	raised.	—	Buffington I.
			Arroroline.....snag..	total.	—	Peyton I.
			Geneva.....explo.	total.	3.	Missouri
			Cleopatra.....burned.	total.	5.	Black River
			Susquehanna.....snag..	—	—	Cumbr'land
			Fleetwood.....snag..	—	—	Wabash
			Magnet.....explo.	total.	11.	Grand View
			Western World.....col.	total.	25.	Mississippi
			R. M. Patton.....col.	raised.	—	Louisville
			Tempest.....snag..	raised.	—	—

This shows an increase of \$106,000, or about 44 per cent. in one year, and but eleven ports are given, the less important ones being omitted. While the foreign commerce of these ports thus increased, the commerce of the Atlantic ports decreased very materially, as is shown by the fact that for the years 1850-51 the aggregate duties in the whole one hundred and three ports of entry in the United States was \$48,788,000 and in the succeeding year it was \$47,320,326. There are about fourteen ports in the United States at which a larger amount of duties is collected annually than at Buffalo, Oswego, Cleveland, or Sandusky. These are New-York, Boston, Philadelphia, New-Orleans, San Francisco, Baltimore, Charleston, St. Louis, Portland, Cincinnati, Salem, Mobile, and New Haven.

The Louisville Courier has the following list of steamboat and other disasters on the western waters during the past year—1852.\* The list is formidable and disastrous enough, and embraces 78 steamboats, 4 barges, 73 coal boats, 32 salt boats, and four other flatboats. The greater number of the flatboats were destroyed by the breaking up of the ice last winter. The number of lives lost is upwards of four hundred. The Courier is not certain that the list is complete, but has compiled it from the best sources at its command.

Name, and how lost.	Amount insured and lost.	Lives lost.	Where lost.
Jewess.....snagged.	2,75	—	St. Louis
Dunkirk.....snag.	—	—	Turkey I.
Gen. Lane.....snag.	loss	—	St. Francis r.
Consigee.....snag.	18,000	—	C. Girardeau
Geo. Washington.....explo.	—	20.	Grand G.
Martha Washington.....burned.	total.	16.	Island 65
Tippah.....burned.	total.	1.	Mississippi
Romeo.....snag.	10,000	—	Mississippi
Pitser Miller.....explo.	—	—	White R.
De Witt Clinton.....snag.	7,000	—	Memphis
Washington.....snag.	total.	3.	Ohio
Peru.....snag.	—	—	Wheeling
Oswego.....snag.	—	—	Chester
May Queen.....snag.	—	30.	Arkansas R.

\*For previous years see De Bow's Industrial Resources.

We are indebted to our friend and correspondent, J. W. Scott of Toledo, for the following extract of a letter upon the growth of the Great North-West:

HEADSTUFFS RECEIVED AT TOLEDO, CHICAGO, AND ST. LOUIS, 1852:

	Toledo.	Chicago.	St. Louis.
Flour.....bbls.	383,877	117,100	131,333
Wheat.....bush.	2,402,605	715,435	2,372,196
Corn....."	4,059,900	3,005,710	1,013,506

Reducing the flour to bushels, at 5 the barrel, the comparison will be as follows:

	Toledo.	Chicago.	St. Louis.
Bushels.....	8,381,199...	4,306,035...	4,044,297

Tonnage of canal freight to and from Albany in 1852.....	1,196,341
Tonnage of canal freight to and from Toledo in 1852.....	350,100

Toledo received by canal, to the 14th November, 260,898 bbls. flour, 1,954,718 bushels wheat, 3,878,047 bushels corn; and by rail-road, to 31st December, 122,979 barrels flour, 447,887 bushels wheat, 181,162 bushels corn. Including what reached Toledo by canal after 14th Nov., and by wagon during the year, the receipt of these three articles at that city in 1852 could scarcely be less than eight millions and three quarters of bushels.

New-York exported to all foreign countries, from 1st January to 20th November, 1852, 1,226,298 barrels flour, 2,678,457 bushels of wheat and 745,180 bushels of corn, amounting in all, counting the flour at 5 bushels the barrel, to 9,555,126 bushels.

The canals which have their terminus at Toledo will, on the opening of navigation, next spring, have an aggregate length of seven hundred miles. For the last seven years, the canal business, at Toledo, has had an average increase equal to its regular duplication in every period of three years. The same ratio of increase during the next seven years would swell its business to nearly that at Albany the past year.

On the 1st January, 1853, an enumeration made the population of Toledo 6,412; and the number of buildings erected, in 1852, 290.

A very small city for so large a business.

## ART. XII.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

CENTRAL ROAD OF TEXAS—ATLANTIC AND GULF ROAD—VICKSBURG AND TEXAS ROAD—SAN ANTONIO ROAD—RAIL-ROADS OF ARKANSAS—RAIL-ROADS OF MISSOURI—RISE IN RAIL-ROAD IRON—BROADWAY, NEW-YORK, RAIL-ROAD—RAIL-ROADS OF PENNSYLVANIA.

We are indebted to Gen. Memucan Hunt, President of the *Central Rail-road Company of Texas*, for a pamphlet of documents concerning this company which is very interesting. Gen. Hunt has procured the promised aid of northern capitalists, and it is only necessary for Texas to increase her land donations to the road, and for the proprietors on the route to do the same, for these capitalists at once to enter upon the work. One of the engineers for the survey has already arrived in Texas. This is the only road chartered which extends from the island of Galveston, and its termination is to be on Red River in either Lamar, Fannin, or Grayson county, a distance of 450 miles. We hope to refer to this road again.

"Messrs. Screven and Roberts, Directors of the *Atlantic and Gulf Road*," says the *Savannah Republican*, "went into the street, for a few hours, yesterday, beginning at midday, for the purpose of collecting subscriptions for the road hence to Pensacola via Albany. Every one to whom application was made subscribed, with one or two exceptions. This circumstance we regard as expres-

sive of a resolute determination to carry the work through. The result of their labors, which will be resumed this morning, is, that the sum of one hundred and two thousand dollars was put down. Verily, old Savannah goes ahead of all other places we ever read of, for taking rail-road stock."

It is stated that some citizens of Liberty remarked at the late celebration that that county would put down at least \$100,000, and a wealthy gentleman residing on the route has, we are assured, signified his intention of subscribing \$20,000. All the present indications seem to be favorable.

The people of North Louisiana are evincing great interest in the *Vicksburg, Louisiana and Texas Road*. It will pass through one of the wealthiest portions of our state and one the least accessible to market, producing 120,000 bales of cotton, and having \$65,000,000 of taxable property. The Texas portion of the road is equally inviting. It has been surveyed and located from Vicksburg to Monroe and also from Shreveport to Marshall. Only four miles of overflowed country intervenes be-

tween Vicksburg and Monroe. Individuals have already taken \$800,000 in stock, and \$200,000 more is expected. Texas has granted a liberal charter (with a donation of 5,000 acres per mile) from the Louisiana line to El Paso, via Austin. We believe this road to be important to the interests of New-Orleans, and that it will become a great thoroughfare of Texas' freights and travel.

The question so much mooted in Texas of the selection of a Gulf terminus for the *San Antonio Road* has, we understand, been decided in favor of Saluria at a late meeting of the Board of Directors, held at San Antonio. The news of the decision was received here a few days since by a gentleman who was present at the meeting, and may be relied upon for authenticity. The following gentlemen constituted the Board, all of whom, with the exception of one, voted for Saluria:

Enoch Jones, S. A. Maverick, Thos. Devine, Chas. King, Jno. T. McLeod, J. T. Dashiell, R. G. Campbell, Wm. Vance, J. R. Sweet, J. J. Giddings, C. R. Rott, A. H. Jones, Dr. R. Peebles, J. A. Paschall, F. Gilbeau, G. T. Howard, and G. T. Gardiner.

We are informed that the citizens of Indianola and Lavaca are conciliated to the selection of that point for the terminus, on the ground that the road is to pass immediately through or near those two places, and that each have agreed to build certain sections of the road. The work is to be commenced immediately, from Powder Horn and Lavaca respectively, the operations to extend upwards on the line from each place. The work will also be commenced at Saluria in due time, as well as at San Antonio. The company have some \$400,000 funds in hand already, and we have good reason to believe that the road will be commenced immediately in good earnest. We understand that the route contemplated for the road, will strike the Guadalupe some seventy-five miles above Clinton.

From the last most able message of the Governor, we extract the following in regard to the *internal improvement policy of Arkansas*.

"Let a point be selected for the Pacific road free from all objections, both of a political and physical character. That point is MEMPHIS, in Tennessee, situate

midway between the contending cities—New-Orleans in the south, and St. Louis in the north; free from the objections attaching to both; neither north nor south, but a point at which the fair-haired sons of the north can meet their sun-burnt brothers of the South, and, seated side by side, westward take their way. In addition to this, Memphis seems already to have been selected, by general consent, as the point on the Mississippi at which all the rail-roads, starting from the Atlantic states, tending westward, both from the north and south, converge. When the middle and New England states start their thousands westward, by means of numerous rail-roads already completed, they reach Cincinnati, thence to Louisville, and upon the cars of the Louisville and Memphis road, now in process of construction, will be set down upon the banks of the mighty Mississippi, at a point opposite the centre of our state. So with the southern traveler, from Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia, by means of the Charleston and Chattanooga roads, now being completed to Memphis, the same point will be reached. Alabama and Mississippi are rapidly securing their connection with the same point. Is it probable that this vast system of rail-roads is destined to stop here? I cannot think so; unless, by the criminal neglect of our most important interests and duties, we fail to afford that aid and encouragement necessary to insure its extension westward, over our own soil, to its ultimate destination on the Pacific.

"It cannot be disguised, however, that whatever may be the objections both to St. Louis and New-Orleans, as crossing-points on the Mississippi river, for the Great Western railroad, they are struggling for it with that power and energy which is ever prompted by a spirit of self-preservation, and with that prospect of success, which results from a judicious combination of wealth, enterprise and energy.

"There can be no doubt, that the St. Louis and New-Orleans road, although of recent conception, will very soon claim a large share of public attention; and surely its importance to Arkansas can only be second to the central railroad, and in its immediate and local results, not even to that. Missouri has already commenced, and has now under contract, a considerable portion of a



railroad extending westward from St. Louis, and designed to compete for the position of the Great National Road to the Pacific. She proposes to extend a branch to the line dividing Missouri and Arkansas, provided we will carry it across our territory, to unite with a similar branch, emanating from the New-Orleans and Opelousas road, west, also intended for the Pacific coast.

"If these states, upon our northern and southern boundaries, shall complete roads from these two great and growing commercial points, to our northern and southern boundaries, surely Arkansas, with the ample resources which I have shown her to possess, will unite in this so much desired work. The construction of this road will afford facilities to the northern portion of the state which are so much needed, as well as to the wealthy cotton-growing counties of the south, through which it will pass, and bring the whole state, within a day's travel of New-Orleans on the south, and St. Louis on the north. How far the construction of this road will supersede the necessity of the Gaines' Landing Road, is not for me to determine, but the construction of one will in no wise operate against the other."

The *St. Louis Republican*, in speculating upon the future of that city, points out the duties of Missouri towards her great metropolis, and sums up the rail-road movements of which she is or ought to be the centre.

First. The road from Alton to Chicago, and thence a continuation up Lake Michigan to Fond du Lac, in Wisconsin, with projected roads beyond to Lake Superior.

Second. A road by Terre Haute and Indianapolis to the shores of Lake Erie, and thence by the New-York and Erie Rail-road and Albany and Binghamton Rail-road to New-York and Boston; and a connection from this road by the west end of Lake Erie to the north shore of that lake, and by Niagara again to Boston—or by Toronto to the St. Lawrence and to Portland.

Third. The Ohio and Mississippi Rail-road to Cincinnati, and thence by Pittsburgh, and the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road to Philadelphia and Baltimore. From this route will ultimately connect a route through Louisville to Richmond and Norfolk.

Fourth. By an extension of the Belle-

ville road to near the mouth of the Ohio, a direct connection through Nashville with Charleston and Savannah. This also making a connection by central roads with Mobile and New-Orleans.

Above is found a system of roads projected, and, to a considerable extent, constructed, directly connecting St. Louis with Lake Superior, and with the Atlantic coast, at Portland, at Boston, at New-York, at Philadelphia, at Baltimore, at Norfolk, at Charleston and at Savannah, and with the Gulf of Mexico at Mobile and at New-Orleans—and all these roads to the east being built without any important aid from St. Louis.

St. Louis is bound to build roads westward. For every main road that comes from the east, a road must be built to the west; and hence, independent of the great object of developing the wealth of the state, springs the necessity of a system of rail-roads for Missouri.

Before the Legislature, a system of roads was presented, looking north to Minnesota, west to the Pacific, southwest to the Gulf of Mexico and Texas, and south to New-Orleans, starting from St. Louis; and considering the importance of the shortest route for each, this system was marked as follows:—

First. The North Missouri Rail-road—starting from St. Louis, and passing by St. Charles up the dividing ridge, between the Missouri and the Mississippi rivers, to the north line of the state—to be continued to Minnesota.

Second. The Pacific Rail-road—from St. Louis through Gray's Gap, up the Missouri to Jefferson City, and thence by the shortest and best route to the western line at the mouth of the Kansas—to be continued to the Pacific.

Third. The Southwest Missouri Rail-road—starting from the Pacific Rail-road near the western edge of St. Louis county, and thence by Bourbeuse Ridge, and Osage and Gasconade Ridge, to the southwest corner of the state—to be continued through Texas, and possibly to California.

Fourth. The Iron Mountain Rail-road—from St. Louis by the Iron Mountain to the south line of the state, and thence through Arkansas.

Fifth. Another branch of the same system, not centering at St. Louis, but not the less one of the main trunks, viz., the Hannibal and St. Joseph Rail-road.

From the London correspondent of the

*Rail-Road Journal*, we learn the following facts in regard to the late advances in the value of rail-road iron :

Pig iron, free on board in Cardiff and Newport, the great shipping ports in Wales for this article, is now at .....	£3 7 6 per ton.
The price in April last, before any advance took place, was...	2 5 0 "
Welsh merchant bar iron, free on board, is now at .....	7 2 6 "
In April, before any advance, it was at .....	4 5 0 "
Railway bar iron was in April, before any advance .....	4 5 0 "
Now it is very firm for cash, free on board .....	7 15 0 "

In London, the price of bar iron is usually £1 per ton higher than in the shipping ports of Wales, to pay the expenses of freight, insurance and other charges. The iron from Staffordshire and other Midland counties being of better quality for many purposes, though not for rails, is usually £1 per ton higher than Welsh merchant bar iron.

One of our exchanges gives the following calculation of the railway which it is proposed to have built in Broadway, New-York. The road is to be some four miles long, at an estimated cost of some \$250,000. One hundred and twenty cars are to be placed on the road or street, the expenses of which is calculated at \$480 per day, or \$175,000 per annum.

At 6¼ cents fare would give \$4,500 per day, or \$1,642,000 per annum.

At 5 cents fare would give \$3,600 per day, or \$1,374,000 per annum.

At 4 cents fare would give \$2,880 per day, or \$1,051,200 per annum.

At 3 cents fare would give \$2,060 per day, or \$788,200 per annum.

At 2 cents fare would give \$1,440 per day, or \$525,000 per annum.

At 1 cent fare would give \$720 per day, or \$262,500 per annum.

According to the foregoing estimate, there would be a profit :

Out 1 cent fare of \$96,000, being equal to interest at 6 per cent. on \$3,433,333 33.

Out 2 cents fare of \$394,820, being equal to interest at 6 per cent. on \$5,330,070.

Out 3 cents fare of \$613,200, being equal to interest at 6 per cent. on \$10,260,000.

\* This article (rails) cannot be bought under £8 per ton to-day, for cash, against bill of lading, and the manufacturers talk of its getting up to £10 per ton before a great while.—November 5, 1852.

Out 4 cents fare of \$856,000, being equal to interest at 6 per cent. on \$14,266,666 66.

Out 5 cents fare of \$1,138,800, being equal to interest at 6 per cent. on \$18,980,000.

Out 6¼ cents fare of \$1,466,800, being equal to interest at 6 per cent. on \$24,446,800.

This is the project of private capitalists, who are willing to pay the city five millions of dollars for the right of way for four miles.

The following will be found to embrace a complete table of the length and cost of the State Works of Pennsylvania :—

Finished Works.	Length.	Cost.
Philadelphia and Columbia Railroad, Philadelphia to Columbia	82..	\$4,204,970
Eastern Division of Pennsylvania Canal, Columbia to the mouth of Juniata .....	43..	6,736,509
Juniata Division of Pennsylvania Canal, mouth of the Juniata to Hollydaysburgh .....	190..	3,531,412
Alleghany Portage Rail-road, Hollydaysburgh to Johnstown .....	36..	1,828,462
Western Division of Pennsylvania Canal, Johnstown to Pittsburgh .....	105..	3,060,677
Total, main line from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh .....	306..	\$14,361,320
Delaware Division of Pennsylvania Canal, Easton to Bristol .....	60..	1,381,742
Susquehanna Division of Pennsylvania Canal, mouth of Juniata to Northumberland .....	59..	806,360
North Branch of the Pennsylvania Canal, Northumberland to mouth of Lackawannock .....	73..	1,560,671
West Branch of Pennsylvania Canal, Northumberland to Lockhaven .....	72..	1,806,472
French Creek Division of Pennsylvania Canal and Feeder, Franklin to Meadville .....	45..	705,802
Beaver Division of Pennsylvania Canal, mouth of Beaver to New Castle .....	25..	511,671
Total finished works .....	710..	\$21,336,058
Unfinished Works.	Length.	Cost.
North Branch Canal, Lackawanna to N.Y. State line .....	89..	2,494,939
West Branch Extension, Lockhaven to mouth of Linnema-honing .....	40..	352,456
Erie Extension, Newcanale to Erie .....	115..	3,100,567
Wisconsin Feeder, mouth of Juniata to Lyken's Valley .....	13..	300,013
Alleghany Feeder, mouth of Koskemenetas to Kittanning .....	15..	31,172
Gottysburgh Rail-road, Gottysburgh to Hagerstown .....	41..	667,918
Total unfinished works .....	314..	\$7,087,045
Whole amount of finished and unfinished works .....		\$28,423,133

## ART. XIII.—MANUFACTURING PROGRESS.

## NEW-ENGLAND FACTORIES—COTTON BAGGING—MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED STATES.

It is now said that the *manufacturers of New-England* are enjoying a fair and moderate prosperity. Those of them which possess an abundance of working capital, and whose real estate and machinery have not cost them too high, are making very handsome profits. Others are doing fairly, and most of them are making up, to a greater or less extent, the losses of the two or three past years, which have been unusually heavy. More than half the stocks in Lowell, Lawrence, Manchester, and other places, which a year ago were selling at 50 or 60 cents on the dollar, have now risen into the neighborhood of 90, and the others, with one or two exceptions, have risen from 10 to 20 per cent. during the year.

Woolen manufactures have not risen so well from their depression as cotton fabrics, and while the number of woolen mills has been greatly reduced, the stock of those which are still working is yet much below par.

The manufacture of *cotton bagging from moss* was not long since spoken of in Mississippi, and, when tested, the bagging was said to possess durability.

The experiment of manufacturing this new bagging originated with Maj. Moseley, the Superintendent of the Penitentiary. Some years ago he attempted its manufacture with his cotton machinery, and he was so well satisfied with the result, that he sent a large quantity of moss to Kentucky, where it was manufactured into bagging with more suitable machinery.

We learn that should the bagging be successful, it may be made at a lower rate than the Kentucky bagging. Having an inexhaustible quantity in our woods, a demand for it would bring the price of the raw article down to three cents per pound. Five cents more would amply cover the cost of manufacture, and the article might be furnished at eight cents per yard.

The following is an official statement of the quantity of cotton, wool and iron consumed in the United States during the past year, together with the value of the raw material consumed, number of hands employed, and value and quantity of the articles manufactured.

## Cotton Goods in the United States.

Capital invested .....	\$74,501,031
Bales of cotton used .....	609,117
Tons of coal consumed .....	121,099
Value of all the raw material .....	\$34,835,056
Hands employed .....	102,267
Value of entire product .....	\$61,869,184
Yards of sheeting, &c. ....	763,678,407

## Woolen Manufactures of the United States.

Capital invested .....	\$28,118,650
Pounds of wool used .....	70,862,829
Tons of coal .....	46,370
Value of all the raw material .....	\$25,755,988
Hands employed .....	39,251
Value of entire products .....	\$43,207,555
Yards of cloth manufactured .....	82,206,632

## Wrought Iron Works of the United States.

Capital invested .....	\$13,994,220
Tons of pig metal consumed .....	351,491
Tons of blooms used .....	33,344
Tons of ore .....	78,767
Tons of mineral coal .....	527,063
Bushels of coke and charcoal .....	14,510,838
Value of raw material and fuel .....	\$9,518,109
Hands employed .....	12,975
Tons of wrought iron made .....	972,044
Value of entire products .....	\$16,387,074

## Productive Establishments of the United States.

States.	Cot- ton.	Wool- ens.	Cast- ings.	Pig Iron.	Wrought Iron.
Massachusetts.....	213.	119.	68.	6.	6
Connecticut.....	126.	140.	60.	13.	18
New-York.....	86.	249.	323.	18.	60
Delaware.....	12.	8.	13.	—	2
Maryland.....	24.	38.	16.	18.	17
Virginia.....	27.	121.	54.	29.	59
South Carolina.....	18.	—	6.	—	—
Georgia.....	35.	3.	4.	3.	2
Tennessee.....	33.	4.	16.	23.	42
Kentucky.....	8.	25.	20.	21.	4
Ohio.....	8.	130.	183.	23.	11
Missouri.....	2.	1.	6.	5.	2
Rhode Island.....	158.	45.	20.	—	1
Pennsylvania.....	208.	580.	320.	180.	131
New-Jersey.....	21.	41.	45.	10.	53
Maine.....	12.	36.	25.	1.	—
New-Hampshire.....	44.	61.	26.	1.	2
Wisconsin.....	—	9.	15.	1.	—
Illinois.....	—	16.	29.	2.	—
Alabama.....	12.	—	10.	3.	1
Louisiana.....	—	—	8.	—	—
Dis. of Columbia.....	1.	1.	2.	—	—
Mississippi.....	2.	—	8.	—	—
Florida.....	—	—	—	—	—
North Carolina.....	28.	1.	5.	2.	10
Texas.....	—	1.	—	—	—
Arkansas.....	3.	—	—	—	—
Michigan.....	—	15.	68.	1.	—
Vermont.....	0.	72.	26.	3.	8
Indiana.....	2.	33.	14.	2.	3
California.....	—	—	1.	—	—
Iowa.....	—	1.	3.	—	—
Total .....	1,604.	1,559.	1,301.	375.	422

The entire capital invested in the various manufactures in the United States on the 1st June, 1850, not to include any establishments producing less than the annual value of \$500, amounted, in round numbers, to..... \$530,000,000  
 Value of raw material..... 550,000,000  
 Amount paid for labor..... 240,000,000  
 Value of manufactured articles..... 1,020,300,000  
 Number of persons employed..... 1,050,000

## ART. XIV.—EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

NEW-YORK WORLD'S FAIR—FINANCES OF TENNESSEE—COLT'S PISTOL—GEORGIA FAIR—CLAY MONUMENT—ERICSSON STEAMER—MAURY'S SCIENCE—NEW BOOKS, PERIODICALS, REPORTS, ETC., ETC.—MEMPHIS CONVENTION OF 1853.

GREAT preparations are being made for the *World's Fair*, which is to be opened in New-York, on the 2d May, and a splendid show of foreign and domestic industry is anticipated. We trust that the Southern and Western people will be well represented with their agricultural, mechanical, manufacturing and mineral products. The New-York Board appointed a committee for the southwest, resident at New-Orleans, consisting of the following gentlemen:—James Robb, Lucius Duncan, Maunsel White, E. La Sere, W. N. Mercer, W. E. Gasquet, H. R. W. Hill, A. F. Axson, J. D. B. De Bow, A. M. Horlbrook, Alex. Walker, C. J. Leeds, Newton Richards.

"The committee have issued an address to the people of the states embraced in their action, Louisiana, Texas, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Arkansas, from which we make the following extracts:—

"The Fair will be opened on the 2d day of May, 1853, for the exhibition of the industry of all nations, in the splendid structure on Reservoir Square, New-York, embracing an area of 173,000 square feet or four acres. The building has been made a bonded warehouse by government, and already assurances are given of an extensive representation of foreign industry.

"Applications for admissions of objects of exhibition must represent their nature and purpose, with the number of square feet required, whether of wall, floor, or counter. The machinery will be exhibited in motion, the motive power to be furnished by the association, and applicants must state also the amount of power required. Paintings in frames will be received. Where ores are exhibited, they should be accompanied by the rocks in which they are found, and also, if possible, by plans and sections of the measures in which they lie, and models and drawings of processes or manufacture.

"Prizes for excellence in the different departments will be awarded under the direction of capable and eminent persons.

"Applications from any of the states named in this address may be made at any time before the 1st of March, 1853, and must be directed to the chairman of the committee, at New-Orleans, complying with all the requisitions of section fourth above. The applicant must describe with precision—state the time the product will be ready for shipment, and the port from which he desires to ship, and must also provide for the

expenses incurred upon it in the way of freight, drayage, &c., until delivered into the custody of the New-York Board.

"The committee at New-Orleans will decide upon all such applications, and upon the receipt of their favorable judgment, the party will be supplied with a certificate to be forwarded to New-York at the time of shipment. They desire to be informed by the 1st March of the quantity of space which will be required from their division, in order to report to the central committee.

"Citizens of the Southwest, you are invited, and earnestly solicited to be represented in this First Great American Fair. We have products in all abundance in every department of industry and ingenuity, if we will but send them, sufficient to delight and instruct every observer. We were comparatively unrepresented at the London Fair, but every consideration of patriotism should induce us to co-operate in this one upon our own soil. We are a part of the nation that must obtain the glory of success or the shame of discomfiture and defeat. Let us unite with our fellow-citizens of the North in this great enterprise, and rely upon their co-operation in any movements we may make hereafter for similar exhibitions in our immediate region. Thus shall we obliterate local feelings and prejudices and antipathies—strengthen the bonds of amity and concord—realize indeed that we are one people, with one hope and one inheritance, one faith and one destiny.

"Committee—LUCIUS C. DUNCAN, *Chairman*.  
J. D. B. DE BOW,  
E. LA SERE,  
A. F. AXSON."

The annexed statement exhibits the public indebtedness of the State of Tennessee on the 1st October, 1852:

Total indebtedness of the state, Oct. 1, 1851.....	\$3,651,856 66
Capital bonds authorized to be issued under the act of the late General Assembly.....	250,000 00
Indebtedness of the state.....	\$3,901,856 66
CONTINGENT FUND.	
Bonds issued as a loan to East Tennessee and Georgia Rail-road.....	\$350,000 00
Do. East Tennessee and Virginia Rail-road.....	300,000 00
Do. Gibson and Dyer Plank-road.....	25,000 00
Do. Memphis and Charleston Rail-road.....	240,000 00
Amount loaned Int. Imp. Co.'s.....	\$915,000 00



Amount endorsed for Nashville and Chattanooga road, as can be ascertained from the Secretary of State, is..... 675,000 00

## RECAPITULATION.

Actual debt.....	\$3,901,856 66
Loan debt.....	915,000 00
Endorsed debt.....	675,000 00
Total.....	\$5,491,856 66

The people of Tennessee have managed to keep the debt of that state at a moderate point, and, under the restrictions that exist, it will be difficult to increase it much. The system of internal improvements is not calculated to involve the state so deeply as some of its neighbors, while sufficient progress is made to meet the most pressing wants of the community.

From the *London Service Journal* we learn that Col. Colt, the inventor of the celebrated repeating pistols or revolvers, and other firearms, which attracted so much public attention in the Crystal Palace, in the American department of the Great Exhibition of 1851, has found his arms to be so greatly in request in that country, not only for the private use of individuals, but also for officers in both departments of Her Majesty's service in Great Britain, and likewise in the various British possessions abroad, that he has deemed it expedient to make arrangements for establishing a place for the manufacture of them in London. With this intention the Colonel has recently arrived in that country from the United States, and has imported a large quantity of machinery and the necessary implements for the purpose.

It seems that in experiments made in England the Colt pistol has triumphed over every competitor, and thrown the officers of the army and navy into perfect ecstasies.

The next fair of the *Southern Central Agricultural Society* of Georgia, will be held in Augusta, during the week commencing on Monday, October 17, 1853.

Citizens have subscribed the very liberal sum of *seven thousand dollars* for the use and benefit of the Society, and the arrangements for the next exhibition are on the most extensive and perfect scale.

The premium list has been very much improved in many important particulars, and embraces nearly every branch of industry and taste. We shall take great pleasure in laying it before our readers in a future issue, and will keep the public apprised of all matters of interest connected with the coming exhibition.

A *Clay Monument Association* has been formed in New-Orleans for the purpose of raising funds to erect a colossal statue of the great statesman within the limits of the

city. We approve of this movement with all our heart. Subscriptions are solicited from all the Southwest. The president of the association is our worthy citizen, Dr. W. N. Mercer—the chairman of the executive committee, James Robb. Would it not be well to have a colossal group in the public grounds at Washington, representing Calhoun, Clay and Webster, the great American triad, as they appeared in the compromise discussions?

Dr. J. C. Nott, of Mobile, and Geo. R. Gliddon, have issued a prospectus for a work upon the "*Types of Mankind*," or chronological researches upon monuments, paintings, skulls, &c. It is to be put to press in a short time, and will be fully noticed by us on its appearance.

As a remarkable proof of the perfection to which nautical science may be carried, it is said that Lieut. Maury, of the United States Observatory, Washington, gave to the captain of the clipper *Sovereign* of the Seas instructions, on sailing around Cape Horn, which, if observed, would enable the vessel to make the passage of 17,000 miles in 103 days, according to his computation, and that the actual time of the voyage only differed two hours from the prediction!

At last the great experiment of *Ericsson* has been crowned with the most brilliant success, and the age of steam is to be succeeded by that of an equally potent though less dangerous element. Who shall predict the end of this great innovation, or to what new results it will lead! In the West, where the reign of steam has been so frightful in many of its exhibitions, we look to the movements of *Ericsson* with delight and hope.

The *Republic* says:—"We may now say that Captain *Ericsson* has realized the hope of his life and reached the goal of his ambition. To invent a substitute for the steam engine that should operate upon a less enormous consumption of fuel, and a less wholesale destruction of human beings, has been the great object of his life. To this object he has devoted his mind and his means, his time and his resources, for the last five and twenty years. He has wrought with the enthusiastic belief that it was his mission in the world to supersede steam as a motive power by some more manageable and innocuous agent. He has fulfilled his mission.

"The two important points in his invention are economy and safety. The engine of the *Ericsson* is kept in motion by *one-fifth* of the fuel that would be consumed by a steam-engine of the same power. Here at once is a vast saving of coal, in labor and in ship-room. Then there is no danger from explosion by recklessness, oversight, ignorance—

no danger from fire, or from the thousand and one accidents to which we are always liable in steam navigation. We may travel in a caloric ship without feeling ourselves perpetually liable to be boiled, broiled, or blown up. There is nothing to apprehend from an incompetent, excited, or rash engineer, in the management of a caloric engine; for when it is once set in motion it needs no watching, and will run of itself for hours without calling for human aid. The worst that could happen, were the engine abandoned, would be for the machinery to stop some time after all the fires were extinguished."

The Boston *Transcript* sums up the advantages of the newly invented engine as follows:—

1. The caloric engine burns about one-tenth as much fuel as a steam-engine; hence a caloric ship of the largest size may circumnavigate the globe without stopping to take in coal; hence, not a sail will be seen on the ocean in fifty years after the success of the new principle is certain; hence, machinery will be applied to a thousand arts which now require manual labor; hence, the possibility of that long desired machine-plough; and hence the coming of that good time when arduous manual toil will absolutely cease under the sun.

2. The cost of the caloric engine is about the same as the steam engine, minus the cost of the boilers.

3. Only one-fourth as many engine-men will be required on board a caloric ship as are necessary for a steamer.

4. No smoke whatever will issue from a caloric furnace when anthracite coal is used, and consequently no huge, unsightly smoke pipe will be necessary, and the rigging will be as clean as that of a sailing ship.

5. There can be no bursting or collapsing of boilers, for the simple reason that there will be no boilers to burst. The worst accident that can happen to a caloric engine is for it to stop; nor is watchfulness imperatively required, as in no case can a dangerous accident occur.

6. Owing to the extreme simplicity of the caloric engine, the wear and tear will be very slight, and the duration of the engine proportionably long.

If but half these advantages are secured by the substitution of caloric for steam in navigation, it is obvious that very important results may be anticipated. It is not expected that the Ericsson will equal the Collins steamers in speed; but her success will prove that a higher degree of power may be attained, if wanted. Owing to the great difference of expense in navigating the caloric ship, passengers will be taken at greatly reduced rates. We congratulate Captain

Ericsson on the happy issue of his grand experiment.

The following note upon *Uncle Tom's Cabin* was sent to us by a gentleman in Georgia:—

"Mrs. Stowe has written an elegant novel, but though it is only a fiction, it is one of the most incendiary papers ever issued from the American press. It is insulting to the South, because Mrs. Stowe wants the world to believe that all she has written is true! There is one fact however stated in the book, which cannot be controverted, and that is, 'that negroes are sold and bought and held as property.' Now this species of property so held in the Southern States, amounts in round numbers to one thousand millions of dollars—the labor of the slave states produces annually in cotton, rice, and tobacco alone, upwards of one hundred and twenty millions of dollars, giving employment to a vast amount of New-England and Old-England shipping—besides employing an immense amount of capital and labor in Old and New-England. If Mrs. Stowe, and her associates in America and Great Britain, think that the Southern people are so inconsiderate as to give up their property for nothing, and then keep the negroes in a state of idleness as they are kept in Jamaica, they are certainly mistaken. Even on the supposition, for argument sake, that slavery is an evil, how was it brought here, and by whom? The present owners hold generally by inheritance and some by purchase. But if abolition must be resorted to, for the expunging a national evil, how is it to be effected? and who is to bear the burthen? Will New-England come and buy the negroes, take them away and manumit them? or will the government of the United States pay for them and colonize them pro rata, amongst all the states and territories of the Union, until they can be gradually colonized in Africa? Why, if the slaves were to be liberated instantler, and without compensation, the entire South would become desolate—the people would be ruined! and it would be the worst day's work ever done for Old-England, and probably for New-England too: it would shake the government of Old-England to its very foundations, if it did not entirely overthrow it! Great Britain would rather look for a division of the United States, and expect to have all the trade of the Southern States to herself, taking the cotton, tobacco, and other products, and returning manufactured goods, and by this means retard the growing prosperity of the United States, and stave off her own downfall for a century or two. If the negroes are to be emancipated, let the abolitionists count the cost,—the whole country must bear

it, under a system of apprenticeship and colonization, and not otherwise.

"The Pharisees lay grievous burthens, but are not willing to lift one of them with their little finger. Would Mrs. Stowe (or any abolitionist) give up all her property, including the avails of Uncle Tom's Cabin, for any purpose whatever! or would she even relinquish the anticipated pleasure of her contemplated trip to Europe, in pure sympathy for the black race! She will find abundant vice, penury, want, and almost starvation, if she will look for it, in Europe. She ought to get up a book for the universal amelioration and equalization of mankind, and point out the ways and means how to perfect so desirable a system.

"VERITAS."

We are indebted to Mrs. Sarah J. Hale, editor of the *Ladies' Book*, for a copy of her Memorial upon the subject of *Female Teachers for Common Schools*, and also her Appeal upon the subject of the *Ladies' Medical Missionary Society*. These are papers ably drawn up, and reflecting credit upon the head and heart of the author. We have only space now to remark, that in the Memorial she asks a grant of land from Congress for establishing schools to prepare females for purposes of instruction, basing herself upon the following propositions:—

Whereas there are now, within these United States and territories, more than two millions of children and youth destitute, or nearly so, of proper means of education, requiring, at this moment, 20,000 additional teachers, if we give to each instructor the care of one hundred pupils, quite too many for any common school with only one teacher—therefore we beg to call your attention to the following propositions:—

1. That to find 20,000 young men, who would enter on the office of pedagogue, would be utterly impossible, while the great West, the mines of California, and the open ocean, laving China and the East, are inviting them to adventure and activity.

2. That, therefore, young women must become the teachers of common schools, or these must be given up.

3. That young women are the best teachers has been proved and acknowledged by those men who have made trial of the gentle sex in schools of the most difficult description (see Reports of the "Board of Popular Education," "Reports of Common Schools in Massachusetts, &c.") because of the superior tact and moral power natural to the female character.

4. That female teachers are now largely employed, on an average of five of these to one male teacher, in New-England, New-York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and wherever the common-school system is in a prospere-

ous condition; and everywhere these teachers are found faithful and useful.

5. That, to make education universal, it must be moderate in expenses, and women can afford to teach for one-half, or even less, the salary which men would ask, because the female teacher has only to sustain herself; she does not look forward to the duty of supporting a family, should she marry; nor has she the ambition to amass a fortune; nor is she obliged to give from her earnings support to the state or government.

6. That the young women of our land, who would willingly enter on the office of teacher, are generally in that class which must earn their livelihood; therefore these should have special and gratuitous opportunities of preparing them for school duties; thus the normal schools, in educating these teachers of common schools, are rendering a great national service.

7. That, though the nation gives them opportunity of education gratuitously, yet these teachers, in their turn, will do the work of educating the children of the nation better than men could do, and at a far less expense; therefore the whole country is vastly the gainer by this system.

8. That it is not designed to make a class of celibates, but that these maiden school-teachers will be better prepared to enter the marriage state, after the term of three or four years in their office of instructors, than by any other mode of passing their youth from seventeen or eighteen to twenty-one. That earlier marriages are productive of much of the unhappiness of married women, of many sorrows, sickness, and premature decay and death, there can be no doubt.

Mr. Livingston, of New-York, has begun the publication of a new *Monthly Law Magazine*, of which we have received the first number. It is ably edited, handsomely executed, and embellished with portraits of eminent lawyers. Price \$3 per annum.

The new Magazine of Mr. Putnam, New-York, reached us in good season. There are many able articles from distinguished contributors, and the work shows off very handsomely. We wish the publisher much success. \$3 per annum.

Appleton's *Mechanics' Magazine*, monthly, at the same price, is also received.

We thank the editors for a copy of the *Pen and Pencil*; a new weekly Journal in pamphlet form, published at Cincinnati, and devoted to literature, science, and art. \$3 per annum.

The January number of the *Soil of the South* appears in a new shape, and greatly improved. It is deserving of support from the planters of the South.—Columbus, Geo.

Affleck's *Southern Rural Almanac* for

1853, is now issued, and contains a great deal of matter valuable for planters, and at a low price.

Mr. Appleton has furnished us with No. 1, of a work he is publishing, entitled *Memoirs, Journal, and Correspondence of Thomas Moore*, edited by the Right Hon. Lord John Russell, M.P. We shall notice the parts as they appear.

We are indebted to J. B. Steel, New-Orleans, for the *Heart of Mid-Lothian* and the *Bride of Lammermoor*; being two numbers of the cheap edition of Scott's Novels, now in course of publication by A. Hart, Philadelphia. We are also indebted to J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans, for a pamphlet edition of the Speeches of Hayne and Webster on the Resolutions of Foote, in 1830.

We have received the February number of *Hunt's Merchant's Magazine*, and need not say of it that, like all of its predecessors, it is able and valuable to merchant, planter, statesman, and philosopher. This work has been published for twelve or thirteen years, and enjoys a reputation on both sides of the ocean. It is published in New-York at \$5 per annum.

Our thanks are due to Messrs. Tarver & Cobb, of St. Louis, for the regular issues of their *Western Journal and Civilian*, which is published monthly, and devoted to agriculture, manufactures, the mechanic arts, internal improvement, commerce, public policy and polite literature. \$3 per annum.

Through Leonard, Scott & Co., New-York, we receive the re-publication of,

1. *The London Quarterly Review* (Conservative).
2. *The Edinburgh Review* (Whig).
3. *The North British Review* (Free Church).
4. *The Westminster Review* (Liberal).
5. *Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine* (Tory).

TERMS.—For any one of the four Reviews, \$3 per annum; for any two of the four Reviews, \$5 do.; for any three of the four Reviews, \$7 do.; for all four of the Reviews, \$8 do.; for Blackwood's Magazine, \$3 do.; for Blackwood and three Reviews, \$9 do.; for Blackwood and the four Reviews, \$10 do.

The present postage on Blackwood is 24 cents per annum; on a Review, 12 cents do.

The rates are now uniform for ALL DISTANCES within the United States.

L. S. & Co. have recently published, and have now for sale, the "FARMER'S GUIDE," by Henry Stephens of Edinburgh, and Prof. Norton of Yale College, New-Haven, complete in 2 vols., royal octavo, containing 1600 pages, 14 steel and 600 wood engravings. Price, in muslin binding, \$6; in paper covers, for the mail, \$5.

This work is not the old "Book of the Farm," lately resuscitated and thrown upon the market.

From W. Young, editor and proprietor, we receive the *New-York Albion*—a weekly journal of news, politics, and literature, published at 3 Barclay street, New-York, every Saturday, at \$6 per annum. Every subscriber is entitled to a fine engraving. The subject for the present year is Mary, Queen of Scots, from an original picture. Amongst those hitherto published, and from which choice may be made, are Queen Victoria, Prince Albert, General Washington, Landaeer's Dignity and Impudence, St. Paul's Cathedral, The First Trial by Jury, &c.

The Southern Commercial Convention adjourned over from Baltimore, to meet on the first Monday of June next, at Memphis. We trust that the whole South will be fully and strongly represented. The people of Memphis have already moved in the matter, and passed the following resolutions:—

Resolved, 1st. That we, the citizens of Memphis, have read with much pleasure the proceedings of the "Southern and Western Commercial Convention" recently assembled at Baltimore.

2d. That we feel a deep and abiding interest in the objects of that Convention.

3d. That we were especially gratified at the appointment of its next meeting at this place, and we cordially offer to its members and all, from every section of the Union, who may feel interested in its proceedings, the hospitalities of our city.

4th. That a committee of ten be appointed by the chair, to make all arrangements necessary and proper for the holding of the Convention.

Committee.—James Penn, E. M. Apperson, Robertson Topp, M. Owen, A. O. Harris, J. J. Rawlings, C. W. Cherry, Thos. H. Allen, James Elder, J. M. Howard.

Judge Overton, president of the *Opelousas Rail-road*, has lately made a report, which we have not seen, but which is referred to thus by the editors of the *Bee*:—

"It shows that the affairs of the company have been judiciously managed. It recommends an increase in the capital of the company, and trusts the proper state aid will be given to the undertaking. Contracts have been made for the purchase of 4000 tons of rail-road iron, deliverable at the company's wharves in Algiers, at \$55 per ton. Since these contracts were made, iron has risen \$20 per ton, and this advance will increase the cost of the road to Washington about \$800,000. It is confidently hoped that within the next twelve months the road will be completed to Berwick's Bay, and that a portion of the next year's sugar crop from



the Teche will reach market by means of the road. The report dwells in glowing terms on the prospective advantages to be derived from the completion of this great undertaking, its proposed continuation into Texas, and its ultimate extension to the shores of the Pacific."

The "lettings" of the *New-Orleans and Nashville* rail-road have been completed to the Mississippi state line from South Manchac, and this part of the road, it is thought, will be ready for the rails by the end of the year. The rails have already been purchased. The surveyors are at work between the state line and Jackson, Miss., and it is intended to make the road a first-class one, with easy grades, adapted to a double track.

It is proposed to form a company in New-Orleans, to be called the *New-Orleans and Pearl River Rail-road and Navigation Company*, for the purpose of constructing a rail-road from Madisonville, on the opposite side of Lake Ponchartrain, to intersect the Mobile and Ohio road at its nearest and most direct point, a distance of perhaps 160 or 170 miles. Low pressure steamers are intended to ply between Madisonville and New-Orleans.

Senators Gwin and Rusk have with praiseworthy zeal been pressing the construction of a rail-road to the Pacific. Senator Gwin's plan provides for a trunk line from San Francisco to Memphis, for branches from the trunk to St. Louis, to Dubuque, to New-Orleans, and the Bay of Metagorda, in Texas, and the branch from San Francisco to Oregon, the whole length of the trunk and branches to be over five thousand miles. He proposes to grant lands for the object to the amount of a hundred and twenty-four millions of dollars, at the government price of a dollar and a quarter an acre. The road will cost, according to his estimate, \$27,500 a mile. The Texas road he supposes that Texas will herself make, as she is deeply interested in the same, and as the United States have no lands in that state; but if not, he proposes that the United States shall grant money to Texas in aid of the road within her limits, as a military and post-road of the United States. The number of passengers on the road for the first year, he estimates at seventy-five thousand, and the fare at two hundred dollars; giving an income of fifteen millions from this source. Mr. Gwin's route has, he says, been fully explored, and wagons pass over portions of it even now. He mentions that it is a central and direct, and the shortest route.

We lately had the pleasure of visiting the

garden and grounds of Mr. Lawrence, in the lower part of the city of New-Orleans. This gentleman gives great attention to the culture of the best and rarest varieties of fruits, flowers, vines, vegetables, &c., and is prepared to execute orders for the same. Among the fruits, we note cherries, plums, currants, gages, raspberries, gooseberries, nectarines, apricots, peaches, oranges, lemons, quinces, figs, pears, bananas, apples, pine-apples, mangoes, quavas, &c. His green-house is supplied with rare exotics, and upwards of 10,000 rose-trees are set out in the garden. We saw beautiful strawberries, in January. Among grape-vines, we noted the Black Hamburg, the Chasselas de Fontainebleau, the Muscat, Spanish and Sweet Water, &c. Mr. Lawrence devotes much attention also to bees, using the patent hive of Minor, and to foreign varieties of poultry, which we had occasion to mention a year ago. In the list of his poultry are included Brahma Pootra, Royal Cochins, China, Imperial Chinese, Silver-Pencilled Hamburg, Black Spanish, Buff Cochins, White Shanghaes, Sumatra Game, White Cochins, Black Poland, Black Shanghaes, &c. &c. The collection is worthy of a visit.

**PORCELAIN.**—In making a tour of observation with a view to spy out the lions of New-York, we made an editorial stroll into the extensive establishment of Messrs. Haviland and Brother, 47 John-street. We were kindly carried through the whole establishment, from cellar to garret, and witnessed a display of porcelain ware, which we believe can nowhere else be seen, except within the precincts of Sèvres and Limoges; certainly none comparable to it can be found in this country. One of our own fraternity, the editor of the ancient and mirth-inspiring *Knickerbocker*, seems to have made a similar tour; and as he has anticipated us in his observations, which are substantially correct, we will extract them for the benefit of our readers:—

"For a long period, those of our countrymen who have visited France have embraced every opportunity to see the rich and gorgeous vases that have been sent forth from the government manufactory of porcelain at Sèvres. We remember, three or four years ago, on a visit to the palace of Versailles, seeing two very superb vases, about six feet high, from the national fabrique, upon which were represented in emblematic portraiture some of the most stirring and glorious scenes of French history. They had been presented to Louis Philippe, and cost, we believe, 50,000 francs. We had little idea at the time that any of our countrymen were engaged in the same department of art and manufacture, and least of

all, that there were Americans at Limoges who were rivaling in beauty the exquisite works sent out from Sèvres. We have recently learned, however, that such is the case; and although many of our readers may not be aware of the fact, there is no difficulty whatever in procuring the execution of any porcelain work, whatever may be the design, or however elaborately it is to be worked, by sending their orders to New-York city. There is a large house in New-York engaged in this trade, and some of the works they have recently produced will vie with the very best that are made in France. They make the moulds for the shape of their porcelain ware, and the laws of France secure to them a species of patent-right in the particular forms; and wherever these moulds are used in the dominions of the French, it is only for the filling of their orders; since the inventor or designer holds his right perpetually in the fruit of his own artistic skill. The casting of the porcelain is a very simple work, and can be done in any establishment of the kind in France. The house we speak of have all their work done at Limoges, an ancient French town, some three hundred miles south of Paris; a town which has been sustained for many centuries by the manufacture, out of their superior clays, of articles in porcelain for ornament and utility. About three hundred persons are employed at Limoges in modeling, finishing, decorating, and packing the goods of this American house. But the most important department is the artistic finish of gilding, painting, and decoration, after the works are cast. We shall have occasion to show how far the genius of our countrymen, as well as their adventurous spirit, has rendered us independent of the Europeans, in securing for ourselves these exquisite productions.

"The importation of porcelain has very greatly increased in this country during the last few years, and the porcelain of France is far more highly esteemed than that of England or China. The clay at Limoges is better than can be found in any other part of the world, even in France; in proof of which it is only necessary to say that the government, at Sèvres, obtain all their supplies there. The chief reasons why French porcelain has gone into almost universal use are, that it is found to be cheaper than any other description, and perhaps even more so than earthenware itself, in consequence of its greater durability. The best quality of French porcelain never becomes

discolored from absorption, nor turns dark when chipped. In the process of manufacture, the clay becomes semi-vitrified, and no destruction of the outer glazing betrays any change in its color. Among those who execute the paintings upon this porcelain, there are some whose works give evidence of taste and genius of a very high order. Some females are employed in painting, one of whom has executed pieces that would do honor to artists of greater reputation. Those who are familiar with the artistic works of Europe well know that, in certain species of the fine arts, particularly in miniature painting, and in delicate drawings and shadings, many of the women of Europe have carried art to a higher degree of perfection than almost any of their rivals of the male sex. There seems to be a special adaptation in the extreme delicacy and nervous sensibility and acute perceptions of woman, to the execution of those more delicate, shadowy, and softened hues, tints and colorings, which are so constantly called into requisition in the ethereal shadowings of the porcelain art world. At the great establishment of Haviland Brothers & Co.—for we had forgotten to say that we allude to them as the pioneers in this new and great department of what we trust will become one of our national arts—we have seen vases and mantel ornaments illustrated with copies of celebrated historical paintings and other works of art, executed with great taste, and which, even to the eye of connoisseurs, might be considered beautiful and spirited representations of the originals. We might have added that the Brothers Haviland established their house in New-York in 1838, and in France in 1840, and they have been instrumental to a far greater extent than the public may generally suppose, in introducing among us the most superb works in porcelain that are now made. We shall endeavor, as soon as we have been enabled to gather the necessary information, to give our readers a minute description of the process which every dinner or tea set, or vase, or other porcelain ornament, goes through, from the first design, until it leaves the manufactory in Limoges, passes through the hands of the artist, and flashes in its brilliancy from the salons of New-York."

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In consequence of a crowd of matter, many advertisements are excluded from this number. The period of their appearance will therefore be extended.

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*A. Mouton*

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AGRICULTURIST

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Nº 25.

Gallery of Industry & Enterprise



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